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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

A Journal of Progressive Public Schools

Volume X JANUARY, 1931 Number 4

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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

VOLUME X JANUARY, 1931 NUMBER 4

EDITORIALLY SPEAKING

COMMON SCHOOLS: FOR WHOM AND FOR WHAT?

The current rumor that the $250,000 Congressional appropriation for a study of secondary education is to be spent wholly for gathering facts and not at all for making recommendations is disquieting. If it prove to be true, it will be distressing. Facts are important; real thinking is impossible without them, but they have no other value than to provide a sound basis for thinking. And, as Holmes once said, "Facts must always give way to thoughts about facts." It is significant that the most distinguished educator in the world today has never concerned himself to any great degree with gathering facts. He has instead devoted himself mainly to discovering the significance of the facts which others have gathered. It is proper to add that he is always, however, thoroughly and completely informed, better informed than most of those who devote themselves to gathering information.

The time calls for the statesmanlike analysis of the problems of public education. The present program is obviously inadequate. The conditions of American life have changed much faster than our educational policies. The frontier has disappeared. The country is predominantly urban and industrial. Authoritarianism in morals has largely lost its hold. Prosperity and the enjoyment of its fruits have become the chief tenets of such social philosophy as we can be said to have. No other values take rank in the popular mind with these. We have a large and as yet undigested foreign increment that has little appreciation of the principles of democracy that we traditionally cherish. The real nature of democracy and its far-reaching implications are but little pondered and less understood by the vast majority of our people. It is vaguely conceived as something unique, beneficent in its opportunities, already achieved, and to be preserved at all costs. The chief and almost the only responsibility which it is supposed to entail is that of voting at the polls.

Meanwhile, we are face to face with the most severe moral crisis in our history. Anti-social conduct, often taking the form of violent acts of crime, incited mainly by a widespread disregard of moral standards and even more general evasion of legal restrictions, is common to a degree no less than appalling to anyone who thinks and cares about the future. As President Hoover declared recently, we are witnessing not a recurring crime wave but a "subsidence of our foundations."

Nevertheless, popular faith in education is as yet unimpaired. Fifty per cent of

our youth of high school age is in school. The higher institutions are still crowded. Assuming that the schools single-handed, with their traditional programs and methods, can take the children and young people out of an anti-social community and socialize them, all will be well—some day. But, can they? Can a regimen of formal studies, mainly aimed at the accumulation of knowledge, offset the other influences at work, influences strongly tending toward a mere pleasure-loving existence, enabled by those material things that money will buy? We do not believe it.

The immediate and pressing problem of popular education is that of adults. Obviously masses of Americans are only partly or badly educated. Only in times of great national stress can they be induced to think seriously about the conduct of life or to direct it into altruistic channels. When the crisis is past, the latter state often appears to be worse than the former. More effective means must be devised to awaken the national conscience and cultivate the judgment. As Professor Bode so well says, what we need is a liberated intelligence—a widespread capacity to think persistently concerning our national problems and the will to exercise it toward social ends.

A new conception of the common school is needed. It should receive children earlier than now. It should continue to minister to them until they are ready to undertake specific preparation for life work. It should be continuous and unified—unified by controlling conceptions of life and growth—life in a progressive democracy and growth through the processes of experience. Tinkering away at the secondary schools in order merely to refine them will not meet the need. They should be examined afresh from the point of view of social needs. The last vestiges of the "preparatory fallacy" should be removed. They should be related more definitely to the other agencies with which they share the common task of attempting to realize the possibilities of democracy.

The public school should be a school for the public. It should offer a wide range of opportunities for both old and young. It should aspire to be the focal point of community betterment. Its influence should be far-reaching and pervasive. Many schools already approximate these ideals. If national surveys will hasten the time when all common schools shall do so, they will be amply justified, not otherwise.

DEATH INVADES OUR RANKS

The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction has suffered the loss of one of its leaders. Miss Mary A. S. Mugan of Fall River, Massachusetts, has been called from among us. We shall miss her.

Miss Mugan was president of the Department in 1928-1929 and, at the time of her death, a member of the Board of Directors. She was also an associate editor of EDUCATIONAL METHOD and a delegate to the Council of Education. Her educational activities were many and varied. As assistant superintendent of schools, she bore the chief responsibility for the supervision of teaching in both the elementary and the high schools. She was on the staff of the School of Education of Boston University. She was the author of school textbooks and of numerous educational articles. Her personal acquaintance was wide and her influence correspondingly great.

Those who had the privilege of close professional association with Miss Mugan can best appreciate, perhaps, how much she did with her talents. She knew how to inspire, direct, and appreciate. Her devotion was tireless. A better example

of singleness of purpose we shall not soon discover. It is gratifying to have from the pen of one of her associates in Massachusetts a tribute that eloquently expresses what so many feel.

MISS MARY A. S. MUGAN

WRITTEN FOR THE ADMINISTRATIVE WOMEN OF MASSACHUSETTS

The black letters on the white paper have told us that Mary Mugan is dead. But how can that divine spirit of love and service, faithfulness to duty, untiring zeal for helping every needy child or struggling teacher, be dead? Is not the very memory of Miss Mugan a denial of all that would try to persuade us that her work is evanescent? Is not her memory the proof of the permanency of every service rendered as a joy in doing God's work on earth?

What a seeker for truth she was! From early years her insight into the constantly varying problems of teaching gave her the healing sympathy that blessed all who sought her help, and she waited not to be entreated. Always alert to seize every chance to test her conclusions by another's wisdom, she was grateful for the crumb we gave in return for the fair white loaf that she dealt out so bountifully.

Many a time, weary with many hours of travel, I have come upon Miss Mugan, calm, serene, and ready. Her dark eyes would shine like stars as the long tedium gave way to earnest discussion of school problems, authorities, safe leadership, treasures of new experience. How modest over her own splendid achievements, of knowledge and the power of awakening her own spirit in others! How appreciative of the moiety one could offer to her! One's own powers of attention might flag, but never did hers waver from the goal addressed.

She was generous of her time as if time were endless, because she knew in that seeing soul of hers that it is! Her creed might have been

> Rejoice we are allied
> To That which doth provide
> And not partake, effect and not receive!

Her door was never closed to a needy child, a discouraged teacher, or to a mother in sore need—all departed with the gift they sought, kindness, wisdom, opportunity, help. The recital of her beautiful charities would be a long telling.

No one could listen to her account of the experiment of giving to children beautiful poetry for their daily companionship, without kindling to that quest of joy herself. No one could hear her account of Americanization work with men and women of the other language and race, without marvelling at the simple common sense of it. She knew the one thing that most workers in this subject blunder along year after year without suspecting: that the same heart beats in every human breast, and until we can make that truth permeate all our dealings, our seed, however good, is falling on stony ground, and the birds of the air will devour it.

One felt keenly in every discussion with Miss Mugan how far her power transcended the jargon clothing simple truths in a strange new apparel, perplexing to the ear as the ceaseless beat of sounding brass. She was always placing, like her Master, a child in the midst of such doctors. For as one of her friends has said, children were to her individuals, to be gently led to love the truth and beauty, and never to be the pawns of theorists. She would have them look on life with wide vision, always remembering that the noble life is

> Not the laurel but the race,
> Not the quarry, but the chase,

Not the hazard, but the play,
Let me follow, Lord, alway.

Called away from us at the height of her power, keen for every opportunity to provide ambitious teachers for education's noble goals, and to help them win thereto; holding herself, by rigorous study, to the growth of mind and soul that enabled her to lead her followers toward the fair hilltops she had gained, she has slipped away from our mortal eyes, but what wealth has she left to us who love to call ourselves, albeit half-hesitating, teachers. Here is her challenge to each of us from lips forever stilled—

"Never to tire, never to grow cold; to be patient, sympathetic, and tender; to look for the budding flower and the opening heart; to hope always, like God; to love always—this is duty."

MARY MCSKIMMON

SUPERVISION

MILTON D. PROCTOR
Superintendent of Schools, Uniontown, Pennsylvania

Supervision is the integrating of the teacher's personality.

In a recent analysis of three hundred actual supervisory situations I found that the beginning of improvement, in practically every case, was brought about through the establishment of a psychological urge to do a better piece of work. These situations indicated that objective procedures were valuable only as a means to an end and were found to be not only worthless but dangerous as a basis for supervision. Then, too, if there is still a place for conclusions reached through experience and observation, may I say that daily contact with classrooms and frequent conferences with principals and supervisors have led me to conclude that teachers, in their earnest desire to please the objective supervisor, become slaves to mechanical schemes and standard tests.

Modern supervision, as expounded by the authors of the Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, is obliged to be impersonal. The editor believes that "teachers will welcome methods of supervision that are friendly and well-meant but also impersonal and objective." This and other statements in the Yearbook imply that an objective procedure is the only sound basis for constructive supervision. With the most profound respect for the Yearbook authors, I must be allowed to express an opinion very different.

It may be interesting to review briefly the history of supervision in this country to discover the steps which led up to the acceptance of objective techniques. Supervision has passed through at least three distinct stages. It originated to correct "the disgraceful condition of teaching in our public schools." This first stage might well be called the period of blind faith. Everyone expected much from the innovation, and all were willing to try.

The reactionary period extended from about 1916 to 1921 or 1922. In 1918 the grade teachers of St. Paul objected to this "gentle art" of supervision. One year previous to this the American Federation of Labor complained that the conduct of the schools was undemocratic, teachers having a negligible voice. In 1919, at the

N. E. A. convention held in Chicago, Miss Sallie Hall pointed out the lack of democracy in our public schools. One year later Carrie Koon of Allentown, Pennsylvania, in a meeting of the Pennsylvania State Teachers Association, called attention to the changing attitude toward supervision —from the position where no one questioned to the position where dissatisfaction was openly expressed.

During the following years many articles were written emphasizing the need for cooperation in supervision. Supervisors were advised to assert their leadership rather than their authority. "Supervision must become democratized" was a general slogan. Leading classroom teachers promised coöperation if the supervisors changed their autocratic methods. Thus we passed through a period of coöperative supervision. There were many high-sounding phrases but no definite attempt to analyze psychologically in terms of worthwhile objectives what was meant by the terms used.

The objective supervisors, with their technics-for-this and technics-for-that, have lately raised a great cloud of smoke which is likely to obscure completely the only really significant processes in the art of supervision. For whatever ailment your supervisory program is suffering they have a guaranteed, money-back, never-fail, remedial technic. Here in the Yearbook are technics proposed and suggested, factual data technics, diagnostic and time-activity-analysis technics. We are asked to put our full, unstinted faith in this objective analysis, which resembles superficially a full-grown train schedule with x to indicate "stops to discharge passengers only." If this technic does not appeal, try the analysis which is suggested for tropical climates, the green one with wavy lines and cross hatching numbered from 1 to 137.

These impersonal objective technics are the shell that hides the real thing. They are as insidious as they are prevalent. They have grown up with the urge to mechanize everything and everybody, and they are accepted everywhere by supervisors who lack the courage to use a personal, subjective method for fear of being thought unmodern. A survey of the complicated devices thrust on us by the zealous advocates of objective technics for everything leaves me weak and discouraged. In my weariness I seek relief from the language of my son and say, "Supervision—and how!"

If you would prove the pudding the objective supervisors make, you have only to go into the schools where they practice. Any person who is sensitive to the atmosphere which is characteristic of a happy school filled with people busily engaged in meaningful activities will find little of it in the institutions supervised on a plan too similar to that of the production expert in the modern factory. Efficiency in the factory and efficiency in the school are not identical, nor are they produced by like methods. The raw material and the finished product of the school are sufficiently different from those of the factory to justify different methods, different machinery, different supervision.

I do not believe that teachers will welcome impersonal and objective supervision even though friendly and well meant. Supervision must be personal. In its best form it is largely a communication of enthusiasm. Enthusiastic teachers blossom and flourish in the warmth of supervision that is personal and friendly, but they are blighted or wilted in an atmosphere of prescriptions and imperialistic directions. It is true, technics help the supervisor to improve the teaching process, but they are mere "tricks of the trade" and not a sound basis for a philosophy of supervision. If we recognize that the teacher-

pupil relation is fundamental, let us be consistent and make our supervision personal in the finest sense of the word. Supervision progresses as teaching progresses and growth in the teacher, like growth in the child, comes through realization of success in a purposeful activity. A sound supervisory program, to me, means a positive program of encouragement and that promotion of self-confidence which must underlie all contacts between supervisor and teacher.

Education for ethical character is a subject much discussed in professional conferences—"we need to be concerned about the ideals our students are carrying away from the school." It would be well to begin by abolishing practices in supervision which tend to make teachers hypocrites, doing what will please the supervisor, even at the expense of their personal integrity and professional independence. The enthusiastic young teacher is quickly hammered into the form and before long has accepted the system completely—only a few are intrepid enough to conserve their initiative against a day when it will not be fatal to exercise it. For the more timid there is the nicely mechanized, comfortable rut. Through a measured cadence—assignments, tests, report cards—and assignments, tests, report cards—these automatons tick off the days and months and terms with no more initiative or originality than could be expected from a grandfather's clock. Gone the zest, gone the eagerness, gone the richness of life: their inheritance they have sold cheaply for the impersonal, objective approval of the ones who wind them up and count their very ticks. Into the hands of these robots we deliver our children with the calm faith that the boys and girls will be nourished in wisdom, independence, and courage to meet their certain problems and solve them well.

The personal type of supervision is as old as teaching. It is not an invention but a discovery. Even while the loudest hubbub about objective technics is being made, saner, calmer schoolmen are using a personal method of supervision to build up strong faculties. Unless human nature changes greatly, personal supervision will be flourishing when objective technics are to be found only in comprehensive histories of education.

Teachers learn to teach by a process no different from that by which they learn anything else: the interest factor, the law of precise practice, the effects of satisfaction and annoyance, and the other elements that make up every learning situation are present in the experience of the teacher learning to teach, or learning to teach better, and the best supervisors are those who are the best teachers. "Mark Hopkins on one end of the log" was in no need of an objective technical analysis of his student on the other. To-day, supervisors would do well to emulate this able teacher whose influence kindled the fire that made the steam to carry many enthusiastic young teachers a long way under their own power.

I am not pleading for an innovation, but I am inviting supervisors to take off their smoked glasses and see things as they are. Objective technics have a place in the supervisory process, but they are not supervision. They are to supervision what objective tests are to classroom teaching. The supervisors who have become mechanized must allow the wheels to run down and start out again among their teachers propelled by sincere enthusiasm and guided by an understanding heart.

WHAT IS PERSONALITY?

DOUGLAS B. MILLER
Principal, Maxwell Park School, Oakland, California

There was a time not so long ago when there was considerable mystery surrounding the term "personality." There was supposed to be something magical about it which made us popular with our friends. We were either born with it, or we were the unfortunate ones who would find it necessary to go through life without its blessings. Whether we call it appeal, or personality, or just "It," there is something about an individual's behavior which makes him accepted and liked by the social group.

Recently, a group of very serious thinkers have worked with the problem to determine what it is that makes for general social acceptance and which makes for consequent success. The results of that work have almost revolutionized our system of training children so that they may possess the positive traits of success. Personality has been analyzed, its characteristics discovered, and ways and means have been devised for building these traits into children from the moment of birth on through their lifetime. This has had such an effect that several most profound thinkers in the field have led the way in stating that the "integration of personality" and not the acquisition of skills and subject matter is the real business of education. What effect this movement will have upon existing courses of study and the curriculum remains to be seen, but it is easily apparent that personality building and rebuilding is the most potent problem in child training today, both at home and at school.

What is personality? If this term is to indicate the direction of our efforts, we must form a definite concept of its nature and how it is formed. The second part of the problem may best be answered first, after which a definition may be made.

A study of our physical environment reveals that there are many forces which affect the behavior of an individual. A simple classification of these might be made between those which are hereditary and those which are environmental. Since training is concerned with the latter aspect, we will confine our attention to that phase. Factors of environment exerted upon an individual may be classified in several ways. One classification lists these forces as moral, religious, cultural, intellectual, and physical. For our discussion, the writer wishes to classify the forces as physical, physiological, social, and mental. It makes little difference what classification is used here, for the purpose of this article is to illustrate how these factors exert pressure to affect an individual's behavior.

The physical factors consist of the weather, climate, temperature, play yard, toys, water, food, sunlight, and all of the other host of material things with which an individual comes in contact.

The physiological factors are those which lie within the individual after birth, and also in the mother before his birth. These include digestive, circulatory, nervous, reproductive, eliminative, respiratory systems, the means of handling food to produce growth, strength and warmth, the method of handling disease germs and bacteria, and all other factors that are privately one's own.

The social factors consist of all the popular prejudices, beliefs, customs, traditions,

concepts of proper conduct, religion, politics, and other ideas that are accepted by the particular society of which one happens to become a part. The sum total of all these is sometimes called the "social heritage."

The mental factors include those abilities which an individual inherits, or later develops through training, whereby he learns to meet the needs of life and adjust himself to his environment. These abilities, both general and specific, are sometimes spoken of as mental energies or intelligence. By means of their action, the individual is directed in his behavior. In a sense, the mental factor is the one through which the other three forces (physical, physiological, and social) exert their effect upon one's behavior. It is the drive shaft which transmits the forces of energy to action or motion. It is also the most malleable or easy to change, and is the one by which, through experience, the individual is able to make adjustments to the needs of a changing environment.

Each of these sets directly affects the behavior of the individual. Thus, the matter of food directly affects a child's growth. Improper food may result in digestive (physiological) difficulties, which may result in rickets, scurvy, or hives. These often cause an unhealthy condition, which in turn affects one's behavior. Also, a lack of play apparatus or physical exercise produces a lack of muscular coördination. This makes one awkward and unable to do mechanical tasks skillfully. Both of these prevent social recognition by one's fellows, with a consequent lack of one of the essentials to a good personality.

Other factors react in the same way. Take bed-wetting (enuresis), for example. A child so afflicted is ridiculed by his playmates. He cannot win social recognition and be admitted to membership on an equality. He is made to feel that he is inferior. Soon he believes it. Then he has developed an "inferiority complex" which quickly dominates all things which he attempts to do. Too often he is ostracized from the group and becomes anti-social. The same is true of one who is mentally weak or dull. That individual is unable to keep up with his class, or to meet situations with success. His associates quickly sense his deficiency. By direct word or implication, he becomes aware of his shortcomings and again we have a good basis for anti-social characteristics to develop in the individual's personality. The effects of the social factors are too obvious to list here.

Not only do all of the individual factors of one group react upon an individual, but so also do every other set, *and* all of them operate at the same time. Thus, an individual at any given time is in an environment in which a complex set of forces is operating to affect his conduct or behavior. All of these forces produce situations which he must meet successfully if he is to survive independently. If he definitely succeeds in meeting them, he is said to have developed positive traits of personality. For example, Roosevelt in his youth was delicate and frail. But by the concentration of sufficient determination and the consistent use of an intelligent program of health building, he was later considered one of the greatest exponents of the "Vigorous Life." He had a hard situation to meet and he met it successfully. It therefore became a positive part of his personality. If, on the other hand, the individual fails to meet the situation, it may result in his elimination from the life struggle, or in a *negative* trait. He may become a weakling and therefore lack that positive part of his personality by which he would gain social respect.

Since all forces with which an individual comes in contact require that he meet situations, the things that he does and says

in response to them are called behavior reactions. As he meets more and more of these successfully, he becomes confident in the knowledge that he has succeeded. This is one positive attribute of his personality. It therefore affects his attitude, and he becomes happy. Further, he can analyze the process and tell others. They try the plan and succeed. He therefore gains their respect. And so the story might be extended for every situation in which the individual has made a successful adaptation.

The writer likes to illustrate the process in another way. He calls into play the law of physics which says that "the position of an object at any given time is the *resultant* of all the forces acting upon it." Suppose one ties four elastic cords to an object and places them on a table. Then suppose that four persons take the cords, go to different corners, and all pull on their cords at the same time. If the cords are all the same length and each one is pulled by the same amount of force, the object will come to rest in exactly the center of the table. But if one individual pulls with more force than the others, the object will be moved in his direction and away from the others. Its position is therefore the *resultant* of the forces.

Analogously, the four groups of forces react upon the individual as outlined above. Personality becomes the resultant of all these forces. More particularly, *personality, at any given time, is the sum total of all the attributes which an individual has acquired as a result of his own particular successes in making adaptation to all the forces of his environment.* If one develops one side more than another, his personality becomes out of balance; or, as we say in personality building, he is out of adjustment. The great musical genius or the great artist, each of whom can do only one thing, illustrates the point made here. Each has spent his life in developing one side of his personality. Consider also the child whose bad heart or crippled condition prevents him from developing his physiological (popularly called physical) abilities. He is likely to divert his attention to the development of the social and the mental sides. He finds, however, that he cannot romp and play with other robust healthy children. He isn't always disliked, of course; but neither is he accepted as a member of the group, because he cannot do the things that they can do. The others may perhaps show sympathy for his infirmities, but this operates to make him sense more keenly his inferiority. He seeks satisfaction, therefore, in mental activities. Very often he becomes self-contained and doesn't care for playmates. He becomes solitary and reads a great deal, probably becoming a "book worm." In his reading he learns what other boys and girls do. Then, because he is social by nature, he craves friends again and becomes discouraged because he can neither find them nor do the things that he would like to do. Failure to meet the situation has resulted in a negative side of his personality—or, as we say, he is out of adjustment.

The discussion of the subject thus far has dealt with personality as it is *at any given time.* The matter is further complicated, however, by the fact that from one time to another, even from one moment to the next, the sets of forces are varying as to type and intensity. This is true because the environment, which produces the forces, is constantly changing. Therefore, if we were able to meet successfully all the situations of today, we would have a new set and a new challenge tomorrow. In the course of a few years, great hosts of things change. The fashions of today will be changed tomorrow. The school principal of yesterday was strict, conventional, and conservative; today he is young and progressive and easily approachable by both

children and teachers. Probably the most outstanding change is in the social field in which our rules for social conduct have changed.

The writer is quite aware of the ways by which individuals meet their situations and make adjustments. He is aware of the psychological implications of instinctive and habitual responses. He is also aware of the paramount part played by the emotions, and that the emotional life of individuals who are still making adjustments or who have failed to make them is the vital front of attack upon which the method of all personality making and remaking is based. These points serve the basis for the great work of the psychiatrist, the social worker, the child guidance clinic, the visiting teacher, and even the school counselor. Obviously, they cannot be discussed here.

If education is to be the "integration of personality," we must realize that it is the process whereby children are aided in *successfully* meeting life situations. It is the business of the educator (and this includes the parent as well as the teacher) to provide situations so that children will come in contact with them and will *have to meet them.* A child can never learn to meet them if he is allowed to avoid them, or if someone else meets them for him. Witness the dependence and pitiable inability to do the simple acts required in early life by the pampered child who always has a nurse at his call.

It is the business of the educator (and again this applies to both parents and teachers) to organize ways and means of detecting *early in the case* any point of maladjustment and remedy the *cause.* Otherwise, the child has one side of his personality underdeveloped. No growth has taken place.

The development of abilities to meet all phases of one's environment simultaneously results in one's well-balanced behavior. This can be done only through the experience of meeting situations. To select the proper situations and to aid the individual to meet them is the job of the educator. The consciousness of the knowledge of success in meeting situations is reflected in the individual's thoughts, attitudes, and actions, and the sum total of these constitute the reactions upon one's associates which are termed personality.

THE EFFECTS OF ALL-YEAR SCHOOLING UPON SCHOLARSHIP[1]

GEORGE I. BRINKERHOFF
Principal, Webster Street School, Newark, New Jersey

There can be no question about the effect of all-year schooling upon grade advancement. All the figures bearing upon this matter show that there is less retardation in the all-year schools than in ten-month schools of the same population type, and that proportionately more pupils remain to graduate from all-year schools.[2] The question naturally arises whether the all-year pupils have gained real educational benefit as well as grade progress.

The first study along this line was made by the Academic Council of the Newark Board of Education in 1921. A further study was made by Superintendent David B. Corson and was incorporated in the 1922-1925 Report of the Newark Board of Education. The last published investigation was conducted by Dr. William A. McCall and was made a part of the Farrand-O'Shea Report on the All-Year Schools of Newark, New Jersey, February, 1926. Besides these studies there are survey test records, intelligence test records, state examination records, and high school records, all of which may be employed to some extent in attacking this problem. Most of the available data on this topic have special reference to the Newark schools, but the tendencies shown by these data have general application.

The study made in 1921 by the Academic Council to the Newark Board of Education consisted of a comparison between two schools, one all-year school and one ten-month school. The two schools were similar in population type, though the ten-month school had a slightly larger proportion of pupils whose parents spoke English at home. The high school records of graduates of the two schools (Table I) show that over a period of eight years (1912 to 1920) the all-year school sent proportionately more pupils to high school and that more succeeded in passing the first year. At the same time relatively more of the all-year graduates dropped out before graduating and more failed in the first year. This apparent admixture of success and failure at one and the same time is due to the fact that the greater number of all-year school graduates entering high school made it possible for many to fail or to drop out and still to leave a greater number succeeding or persisting in high school. If the failure is figured on a percentage basis, with the number entering high school used as the base, the advantage lies with the ten-month graduates; but when the elementary school enrollment is used as the base (this is the proper base to use, of course) the advantage is with the twelve-month graduates. This is easy to understand. The ten-month school sent a more select group to high school and therefore is charged with less failure. The heavy elimination from school took place in the elementary school below the eighth grade. The heavier elimination of all-year school students took place above the eighth grade. Some of the duller pupils, those who would not have graduated from a ten-month

[1] This is the fourth of a series of articles on the all-year school, by Mr. Roe and Mr. Brinkerhoff.
[2] *Educational Method*, December, 1930.

TABLE I

SHOWING HIGH SCHOOL RECORDS OF GRADUATES OF AN ALL-YEAR SCHOOL AND OF A PARALLEL TEN-MONTH SCHOOL

	Twelve-Month School	Ten-Month School
1. Average enrollment	1702	1627
2. Number graduating from elementary school over a nine-year period	1196	786
3. Entered high schools — nine years	730	558
4. Left high school before graduating	442	319
5. Number on roll in high school at the time of the study	190	136
6. Number graduating from high school up to time of the study	98	103
7. Percentage of failure in first year, based on number enrolled in high school	33%	22%
8. Percentage of failure in first year, based on elementary school enrollment	26⅔%	29⅓%

MR. ROE'S EXTENSION OF THIS STUDY TO MARCH, 1924

4. Left high school before graduating	519	368
5. Number on roll in high school, March, 1924	28	18
6. Number graduating from high school	177	164

school, reached high school and found the work ill-adapted to their capacity. The brighter ones, those who would have succeeded in graduating from a ten-month school, did as well as the ten-month graduates. The problem hinges on what policy should be adopted with the so-called duller pupils. To have them go to certain failure in high school does not seem wise. To have them meet failure in the grades, on the other hand, seems even less wise. Perhaps the high schools should offer courses that would better suit the needs and capacities of children who do not take kindly to academic work.

Mr. Warren A. Roe extended this Academic Council study until March, 1924, keeping a record of the progress of the students that were on roll in high school at the time the Academic Council concluded its investigation. It was found that, of the 190 all-year graduates on roll in high school in September, 1920, 89, or 49%, graduated from high school; 28, or 15%, still remained in high school; and 75, or 38%, had dropped out. Of the 136 ten-month school graduates on roll in high school in September, 1920, 51, or 38%, graduated from high school; 18, or 13%, still remained in high school; and 67, or 49%, had dropped out. This changes the complexion of the Academic Council report by bringing out the fact that an all-year elementary school enables more of its pupils to complete high school than does an equivalent ten-month elementary school. The whole number of one all-year school's graduates completing high school (up to March, 1924) was 177; the whole number of a parallel school's ten-month school graduates was 164.

The Report of the Academic Council points out that all-year graduates were often at a disadvantage upon entering high school because the all-year school terms and high school terms did not coincide. Pupils who graduated in June or in August experienced no difficulty; they could enter high school at the beginning of the following term in September. Those who graduated in December or in March, however, entered

high school *during* a high school term and therefore were forced to pursue makeshift courses until the beginning of a new term. All this was changed immediately after the Academic Council study, when an all-year high school was established with terms coextensive with those of the all-year elementary schools, bringing about proper articulation between high school and all-year elementary schools. Under this improved condition all-year school graduates are as successful in high school as are ten-month school graduates.

A further study in this same direction is recorded in the 1922-1925 Report of the Newark Board of Education, pages 98-102. Scholarship records of all-year school graduates in high school were compared with those of ten-month school graduates, school by school, but unfortunately the schools chosen for comparative purposes were so different in the average intelligence of their pupils that no valid conclusions could be drawn. Wherever there was approximate equality in the average I. Q., the high school ratings were approximately equal. This is shown in Table II, the figures of which were taken from a more elaborate table from the 1922-1925 report mentioned above. Although these figures are of the mass type and were gathered under varying conditions, they appear to indicate that all-year schooling in the grades is not an important factor in determining a pupil's success or failure in high school. Native intelligence is what seems to count for most in this regard. As a rule, it is the duller pupils who fail, regardless of the type of elementary school they attended.

Since the all-year schools send a relatively larger number to high school than do ten-month schools of the same pupil type (that is, since they send many pupils which the ten-month schools would fail to graduate), one would naturally expect the average high school rating of all-year pupils to be lower than that of ten-month school pupils, but Table II would lead one to infer that all-year schooling makes it possible for more pupils to reach high school without lowering the average high school rating of the graduates of any one elementary school. This conclusion cannot be accepted as final, however, for too few cases were studied, but it does agree with Mr. Roe's findings in 1924.

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL RATINGS OF ALL-YEAR SCHOOL GRADUATES WITH THOSE OF TEN-MONTH SCHOOL GRADUATES

Schools Paired Off on Basis of Similarity of Average I.Q.	Percentage of Failure in All Subjects	
	Of Those Who Left High School	Of Those Still in High School
School A (all-year)	47.1	30.7
School B (ten-month)	47.4	29.4
School C (ten-month)	47.3	37.0
School D (all-year)	31.0	23.1
School E (ten-month)	33.6	20.7
School F (all-year)	33.6	22.5
School G (ten-month)	39.1	20.2

A few studies have been applied to pupils in the grades as well as to those who are in high school. Most of these studies have been in the form of survey tests administered in such a way as to yield grade scores or ratings. In general there seems to be no significant differences between the grade scores of all-year schools and those of comparable ten-month schools, except possibly in the case of the survey tests given recently in arithmetic and read-

TABLE III

SURVEY TEST RATINGS BY GRADE IN ALL-YEAR SCHOOLS AND IN TEN-MONTH SCHOOLS

Standardized Tests	Average Median Scores	
	Of 5 All-Year Schools	Of 5 Comparable Ten-Month Schools
City Arithmetic Survey, January, 1925, given to upper sections of grammar grades:		
Common fractions	26.0	24.6
Decimal fractions	40.0	41.0
Reading Survey, 1926		
(Monroe) Comprehension scores		
Primary grades—Upper sections	7.3	6.4
Grammar grades—upper sections	10.2	10.9
All grades—upper sections	8.7	8.7
Survey, October, 1930		
Stanford Achievement—Arithmetic		
3rd grade, beginning section	28	33
5th grade, beginning section	57	60
7th grade, beginning section	75	83
Stanford Achievement—Reading		
3rd grade, beginning section	29	31
5th grade, beginning section	54	57
7th grade, beginning section	72	77
	Mental Age	
Kuhlmann-Anderson—Intelligence		
3rd grade, beginning section	8.7	8.7
5th grade, beginning section	10.0	10.2
7th grade, beginning section	12.5	12.10

ing (Table III). In these the ten-month schools show greater proficiency in the grades examined, but the intelligence tests applied at the same time show a lower median mental age for the all-year schools. Whether the difference in mental age is sufficient to account for the difference in scholastic accomplishment is not certain. There are so many factors involved that all differences in grade scores cannot be attributed to the difference in the length of the school year. It is noteworthy that the 1930 tests were given at grade beginning (to B sections in ten-month schools and C sections in all-year schools) while the previous survey tests were applied at grade

ending (A sections). This is a slight disadvantage to the all-year schools, because it means a poorer assortment of pupils—the lowest (or beginning) *third* instead of the lower (or beginning) *half* of the pupils of a grade. The previous surveys, however, gave the advantage to the all-year schools, since the pupils of the uppermost third rather than the upper half of the pupils of a grade were examined.

Table III shows that all-year pupils did as well in mechanical arithmetic (1925 survey), measured grade by grade, as did the pupils of the approximately equivalent ten-month schools. It was observed on previous occasions that in formal work the all-year pupils did as well as ten-month pupils, judged by the average or median grade scores. In the reading survey of 1926 the all-year pupils did better in the primary grades but not so well in the grammar grades. The difference in reading achievement in the grammar grades may be due in part to the fact that the all-year schools have kept proportionately more of their duller pupils in school, thus bringing about a lower average reading score. A lower mental age is bound to bring about lower achievement in reading and in other subjects that require ability to think independently.

Table IV shows very little difference in state test scores made by eighth grade all-year pupils and by eighth-grade ten-month school pupils. The tests are objective for the most part and are prepared by state authorities; they are administered and scored by the teachers themselves, each teacher working with her own class. The results have no scientific validity, but they are shown here merely for the purpose of bringing out the fact that there is nothing about them to arouse a suspicion that one type of school is superior to the other in the matter of scholastic standing.

[3] Pp. 50-53.

TABLE IV

STATE EXAMINATION SCORES IN EIGHTH GRADES OF FIVE ALL-YEAR SCHOOLS AND OF SIX TEN-MONTH SCHOOLS OF ABOUT THE SAME I.Q.—JUNE, 1930

Subjects	Average Scores	
	All-Year Schools	Ten-Month Schools
Arithmetic	35.5	34.0
English	31.4	35.6
Geography	31.3	30.7
Health education	36.6	35.5
History	33.4	35.3
Spelling	40.9	41.4
Average	34.85	35.42

The only study of this particular subject having scientific merit was made under the direction of Dr. William A. McCall in 1926, and was included in the Farrand-O'Shea Report on the All-Year Schools of Newark.[3] Since copies of this report are not generally available, it may be well to use the two tables prepared by Dr. McCall (McCall's Table II and Table III).

Practically the entire population of all-year pupils between the ages of 11 years, 0 months, and 12 years, 6 months, inclusive, was matched with a group of ten-month pupils having the same average chronological age, the same average present mental age determined by means of a verbal learning-capacity test, the same average present mental age determined by means of a non-verbal learning-capacity test, and the same average excellence of general social background, including racial, linguistic, economic, cultural, and other such factors. The two groups of pupils having been made

McCALL'S TABLE II (*Abridged*)

	No. Pupils	Mean Multi-mental Mental Age	Mean Myers Mental Age	Mean Social Back-ground Age	Chron. Age Mean	S.D. Multi-mental Mental Age	S.D. Myers Mental Age	S.D. Social Back-ground Age	Educational Age		No. Months in School
									Mean	S.D.	
All-year ...	1,140	130.98	119.89	122.78	140.65	19.44	28.15	15.08	139.25	18.24	60.73
Traditional	1,092	130.97	120.02	123.67	140.96	20.16	30.90	14.48	137.92	18.88	54.67
Difference .		+0.01	−0.13	−0.89	−0.31				+1.33		+6.06
Standard Deviation of Difference										.79	
Experimental Coefficient										.61	

McCALL'S TABLE III

	No. Pupils	Multi-mental Mental Age		Social Background Age		Educational Age		No. Months in School
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean
All-Year	419	134.26	20.55	122.51	14.20	142.69	18.36	62.94
Traditional	419	134.27	20.55	126.24	17.44	140.53	18.04	55.43
Difference		−0.01		−3.73		+2.16		7.51
Standard Deviation of Difference			1.42		1.10		1.26	
Experimental Coefficient			.002		1.22		.62	

as nearly equivalent as possible, except for the type of school which they had attended since the first grade, an elaborate battery of educational tests covering numerous conventional aspects of school work was applied. The all-year pupils excelled in all these tests, and those all-year pupils who had most consistently and continuously attended school twelve months out of each year, when compared with an equivalent group of ten-month school pupils, excelled the most.

The actual amount of superiority of the whole group of all-year pupils is shown in McCall's Table II. This difference is 1.33 months. The superiority in educational age of the more continuous all-year pupils is 2.16 months, as shown in McCall's Table III. The conclusion, in the words of Dr. McCall, is: "The pupils in the all-year schools are further advanced educationally than they would be if they had attended a traditional school instead. Furthermore, the more the pupils in the all-year schools have taken advantage of the opportunities offered by the all-year schools, the greater is their superiority over comparable traditional pupils."

The foregoing data appear to lead to the conclusion that scholarship in the all-year schools is not far different from that in the nearly equivalent ten-month schools, when comparing the two types of schools *grade by grade*. The grade ratings in the ten-month schools are in some cases slightly higher, especially in the upper grammar grades, but grade ratings are not proper data for measuring the effects of all-year schooling upon scholarship. It is what the individual pupil does, not what a "grade" does, that concerns us here. Dr. McCall's study shows that the individual pupil gains in scholarship by attending school twelve months a year. The pupil not only gets into a higher grade (shown by figures presented in last month's article), but acquires additional knowledge, skill, and power. This answers the question proposed at the outset—whether all-year pupils gain real educational benefit as well as grade progress.

It should not be surprising to anybody to find that pupils can learn more in twelve months than in ten. Ordinary judgment would enable one to foresee that extra schooling each year would result in more learning and consequently in more rapid grade progress, but nobody could foretell *how much* progress would result from the additional schooling. Now one may ask whether the educational gain results in any considerable social gain. Is the all-year school a more effective socializing agency than the ten-month school? Is it a real economy? These problems are subjects for consideration in subsequent articles.

PROPERTY OF
GRAND HAVEN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THE COÖPERATIVE GROUP PLAN IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL[1]

I. Introduction

Four members of Dr. Hosic's class who were especially interested in the education of the young child met one afternoon to discuss ways and means for a reorganization of the primary school. Dr. Hosic's Coöperative Group Plan was to be used and the following factors arose to be considered in order to make a practical set-up for the plan: A. The grades to be included in the plan. B. The distribution of the subject matter.

A. The grades to be included in the plan.

It was decided that the first three grades would comprise the unit. There would be two first grades—a lower and a higher division—one second, and one third. This would make four groups of children, four teachers, and four rooms to be equipped to meet the needs of children and teachers. It is true that in such a wide range in the age of the children there would be a wide range in size. In order to solve this difficulty a few extra tables and chairs would have to be put in two of the rooms; footstools could also be provided and might be sufficient for the other two rooms.

The kindergarten group was not included in the plan, but it was suggested that if the schedule were flexible enough, it was desirable to have the kindergarten teacher go with her children into some of the rooms, especially the museum and the arts and crafts room. Later in the year, as the kindergarten group became accustomed to the room teacher, she might work with them, and the kindergarten teacher might work with the older children. It is hoped that a more at-home feeling, a wider exchange of ideas, and richer experiences would be brought about in this way, which would promote desirable learnings in both children and teachers.

Before considering the activities to be carried on in the four rooms and the equipment and materials necessary for these activities, it was essential to distribute the subject matter in such a manner that the teaching load would be equally divided and the equipment and materials would be economically and efficiently arranged.

B. The distribution of the subject matter.

1. Library: literature, composition, story-telling, reading, spelling.
2. Museum: elementary science, arithmetic, health, social studies.
3. Arts and Crafts Room: fine and industrial arts, writing.
4. Recreation room: music, dramatization, program planning, physical training, playground activities.

After the set-up had been completed, each member of the committee took one room and worked out its organization, keeping in mind the other three rooms and striving to make the organization flexible, coöperative, and vital. Conferences were held as the work progressed, the committee feeling that the pooling of opinions, information, and experience would make the whole plan more practical and valuable.

The outline for each room was the

[1] This is the fourth in a series of committee reports on activities, materials, and equipment for the several work rooms in a school organized on the Coöperative Group Plan. The committee preparing this report was composed as follows: Mary Louise Baker, critic in kindergarten and instructor in primary subjects, State Normal School, Geneseo, New York; Cornelia A. Carter, primary supervisor, Charlotte, North Carolina; Mildred L. Clarkson, Riverside School, Wichita, Kansas; and Catherine E. Monahan, elementary supervisor, Providence, Rhode Island.

same, being organized in the following way:

1. Specific objectives
2. Activities
3. Equipment and materials
4. References:
   a. Children's
   b. Teacher's

The Coöperative Group Plan in the primary school now presented is one which expresses the combined efforts of four people to reorganize the primary school in such a way that the young child may be wisely guided to make desirable adjustments to life, both in and out of school, and in so doing live to his fullest capacity.

II. General Objectives

1. To plan a situation in which the Cooperative Group Plan could function successfully
2. To suggest activities which would provide for rich, full living on the part of children and teachers
3. To give references which would be helpful to others

III. Plans for Individual Rooms

THE LIBRARY OR ENGLISH ROOM

Subjects taught in this room: reading, literature, spelling, story-telling, and composition.

I. Specific objectives

1. Reading and literature
   a. To provide the key that opens the door to the world's great storehouse of literature
   b. To lay the foundation for those habits, attitudes, and skills that are essential in the various types of reading in which children and adults engage
2. Composition and story-telling
   a. To develop the ability to talk clearly and to think connectedly
   b. To cultivate without suppression the child's natural spontaneous joy in self-expression
3. Spelling
   a. To establish the necessary habit of writing correctly the words of the spoken vocabulary
   b. To make provision for the establishment of this habit through the nearest possible natural situation

II. Activities—Grades One, Two, and Three

1. Reading activities
   a. Incidental
      (1) Reading from blackboard
      (2) Reading from bulletin board
      (3) Reading tags and labels
      (4) Reading signs or directions
      (5) Reading class newspaper
      (6) Reading newspaper clippings
      (7) Reading names of pupils in class
   b. Reading lesson
      (1) Blackboard or chart lesson based on experiences of children and composed by teacher and children
      (2) Reading from books the experiences of others
   c. Oral reading
      (1) Audience reading
         (a) To another group in room
         (b) To another room
         (c) For assembly
         (d) For mothers
         (e) For Parent-Teacher Association
         (f) At reading party
         (g) At reading club
         (h) At poetry club
      (2) Reading to group
         (a) Selected parts of story
         (b) Parts of story as preparation for dramatization
         (c) Facts to settle a discussion
         (d) The funny parts of a story
   d. Silent reading
      (1) As a preparation for oral reading
      (2) Intensive, for securing information
      (3) Extensive, for pleasure
         (a) Controlled group
         (b) For pleasure—free
   e. Seat work activities
      (1) Building rhymes from cut-up phrases

(2) Matching words with colors and pictures
(3) Making picture books and printing the names, titles, and descriptions
(4) Illustrating a story
(5) Following written or printed directions for drawing or cutting a picture

f. Drill activities
(1) For vocabulary
(a) Reading rhymes and jingles
(b) Matching sentences, phrases, and words
(c) Flash card games
(d) Reading much easy and interesting material
(2) Eye training (largely remedial)
(a) Flash card games
(b) Practice in phrasing
(c) Practice in rapid recognition of words
(d) Practice in breaking up lip reading

g. Phonics suited to individual needs
(1) Exercise in clear enunciation and pronunciation
(2) Exercise in recognition of similar sounds
(3) Practice for correction of speech difficulties
(4) Practice for recognition of new words

2. Language activities
a. Conversation, led by teacher
(1) Topics of group interest
(a) Health
(b) Safety
(c) Class plans for work
(d) Excursions and parties
(e) Construction projects
(f) Plays and games
(g) Constructive criticism of work accomplished and language used
(h) Relating individual experiences to group
(i) Describing pictures and telling stories about them
(j) Discussion of stories

b. Memorization
(1) Repetition of rhymes
(2) Repetition of poems
(3) Reciting of grace and prayer

c. Story-telling
(1) Reproducing stories in parts
(2) Reproducing stories of gradually increasing length
(3) Original stories

d. Oral composition
(1) Compose chart lessons
(2) Dictate and later write letters and invitations
(3) Greetings for holiday cards
(4) Original stories
(5) Original rhymes
(6) Commenting on likes and dislikes of stories told or read

e. Written composition
(1) Letters
(2) Invitations
(3) Captions for posters
(4) Copying of sentences and stanzas from poems
(5) Writing or printing announcements for bulletin boards
(6) Printing labels
(7) Short original stories
(8) Composite plays

3. Literature activities
a. Listening to stories read by teacher and other members of group
b. Listening to poems read by teacher and class
c. Memorizing rhymes and bits of poems for poetry club or other function
d. Reproducing stories for entertainment or for joy in expression

4. Spelling activities
a. Incidental
(1) Spelling those words that arise in daily work

b. Formal
(1) Daily practice on words from standard tests
(2) Recording in pads words that are perfect
(3) Recording troublesome words
(4) Use of printing outfit for printing

(a) Names for pictures
(b) Signs
(c) Descriptions in booklets
(d) Health rules
(e) Safety rules
(f) Menus

c. Learning alphabet
(1) Laying out with large cut-up letters
(2) Making *A, B, C* book
(3) Keeping chart printer in order

III. Equipment

1. Furniture
a. Teacher's desk and chair
b. Desk file
c. Unit tables and chairs
d. Bulletin board on level with child's vision
e. Blackboard low, with wide ledges
f. Low, open bookcases
g. One large table for day's materials
h. Cupboards
i. Children's lockers (in hall)
j. Temporary and permanent pictures hung low
k. Three round or octagonal tables for picture books
l. Library tables and chairs
m. Chairs for group reading

2. Materials
a. Reading chart
b. Plymouth chart
c. Self-help, self-checking reading material
d. Silent reading games
e. Phrase cards
(1) Read and do
(2) Common phrases
f. Word cards
g. Hectograph
h. Printing press
(1) For teacher
(2) For children
i. Sheets and strips of tag board
j. Unprinted news
k. Language notebooks
l. Spelling pads
m. At least five small sets of primers
n. At least five small sets of first readers
o. At least ten sets of reading books of second grade difficulty
p. At least ten sets of reading books of third grade difficulty
q. Ten books each for first, second, and third grade library tables

[*Note.*—The above is only a minimum number of books for reading and library tables. The book cases should contain a choice collection.]

IV. References for Children

1. Primers

Baker and Baker, *The Bobbs-Merrill Primer.* Bobbs-Merrill Co.

Baker and Thorndike, *Everyday Classics Primer.* Macmillan Co.

Coleman, Uhl and Hosic, *The Pathway to Reading Primer.* Silver, Burdett and Co.

Freeman et al., *Child Story Readers.* Lyons and Carnahan.

Gates and Huber, *The Work-Play Primer.* Macmillan Co.

Hardy, *Wag and Puff* (Child's Own Way Series). Wheeler Publishing Co.

Laidlaw Primer, Laidlaw Brothers.

Pennell and Cusack, *The Children's Own Readers Primer.* Ginn & Co.

Smedley and Olsen, *New Primer.* Hall & McCreary.

Suzzallo and Others, *Fact and Story Primer.* American Book Co.

2. First Readers. The first readers of the above series are good.

3. Second Readers. In addition to second readers of above series, the following may be added, as of a more factual nature:

Gordon and Hall, *Nature Stories for Children.* Mentzer, Bush & Co.

LaRue, *Little Indians.* Macmillan Co.

LaRue, *In Animal Land.* Macmillan Co.

Smith, *Circus Book.* A. Flanagan.

4. Third Grade Reading Material—additional or supplementary to grade series:

Carpenter, *Around the World with the Children.* American Book Co.

Carpenter, *Ourselves and Our City.* American Book Co.

Eggleston, *Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans.* American Book Co.

LaRue, *The Billy Bang Book.* Macmillan Co.

Morcomb, M. E., *Red Feather.* Lyons & Carnahan.

Peck, *Near and Far Stories.* Little, Brown & Co.

Riggs, *Animal Stories from Eskimo Land.* Frederick A. Stokes Co.

5. Library Table Books

a. First Grade

Adelborg, *Clean Peter.* Longmans, Green & Co.

Brookes, *Oranges and Lemons, and Other Nursery Tales.* Frederick Warne & Co.

Crane, *Old Mother Hubbard Picture Book.* Frederick Warne & Co.

Deming, *Animal Folk of Wood and Plain.* Frederick A. Stokes Co.

Grant, *Story of the Ship.* McLaughlin Bros. Inc.

Greenaway, *Mother Goose.* Frederick Warne & Co.

Greenaway, *Marigold Garden.* Frederick Warne & Co.

Jackson, *The Peter Patter Book.* Rand, McNally & Co.

My Book of Birds. Samuel Gabriel & Sons.

Smith, *The Farm Book.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

b. Second Grade

Bannerman, *The Story of Little Black Sambo.* Frederick A. Stokes Co.

Brock, *Hop-o-My-Thumb.* Frederick Warne & Co.

De La Mare, *A Child's Day.* Henry Holt and Co.

De La Mare, *Peacock Pie.* Henry Holt and Co.

Field and Farm. Samuel Gabriel and Sons.

Hoyt, *Robinson Crusoe for Youngest Readers.* Educational Publishing Co.

My Book of Cats and Dogs. Samuel Gabriel & Sons.

Potter, *Peter Rabbit.* Frederick Warne & Co.

Rossetti, Christina, *Sing Song.* Macmillan Co.

Wilson, *Myths of the Red Children.* Ginn & Co.

c. Third Grade

Baldwin, *Fifty Famous Stories Retold.* American Book Co.

Burgess, *The Burgess Animal Book for Children.* Little, Brown & Co.

Davis and Chow-Leung, *Chinese Fables and Folk Stories.* American Book Co.

Fyleman, Rose, *Fairies and Chimneys.* Doubleday, Doran.

Judd, *Wigwam Stories.* Ginn & Co.

Nida, *Letters of Polly the Pioneer.* Macmillan Co.

Olcott, *The Book of Elves and Fairies.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Perdue, *Child Life in Other Lands.* Rand, McNally & Co.

Snedden, *Docas, the Indian Boy of Santa Clara.* D. C. Heath & Co.

Williston, *Japanese Fairy Tales.* Rand, McNally & Co.

V. References for Teachers

Anderson and Davidson, *Reading Objectives.* Laurel Book Co.

Brooks, F. D., *The Applied Psychology of Reading.* D. Appleton and Co.

Burke et al., *Conduct Curriculum for the Kindergarten and First Grade.* Charles Scribner's Sons.

Curry and Clippinger, *Children's Literature.* Rand, McNally & Co.

Gates, *The Improvement of Reading.* Macmillan Co.

Graded List of Books for Children, Elementary School Library Course of N. A. E. American Library Association, Chicago.

Gray, *Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading.* University of Chicago Press.

Milne, *When We Were Very Young.* E. P. Dutton & Co.

Moore, Annie, *The Primary School.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Sloman, *Some Primary Methods.* Macmillan Co.

Troxell, *Language and Literature in the Kindergarten and First Grade.* Charles Scribner's Sons.

Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Public School Publishing Co.

THE SCIENCE AND SOCIAL STUDIES WORK ROOM

I. Specific Objectives

1. To offer the child a well-balanced program in elementary science, health, numbers, and social studies
2. To guide the child in his interpretation of the natural phenomena of his environment
3. To help the child to acquire certain information which will make the world more meaningful
4. To help the child to form necessary habits and attitudes which will establish health, economy, and safety
5. To give the child many opportunities to have contacts with varied science material
6. To guide the child in his appreciation of good health
7. To cultivate in the child a sensitivity to number situations
8. To provide the processes and teach the child to fix them so he will be able to meet number situations when they arise
9. To help the child to realize that number is a tool which will serve his needs
10. To give the child experiences which will help him to understand the work processes of the world
11. To give the child experiences which will help him to understand the physical processes of the world
12. To give the child experiences which will help him to understand the social processes of the world

II. Activities

The activities in the museum are so closely related that it was rather difficult to say which ones belong to elementary science or health or number and which ones to the social studies. Drill in the acquisition of specific facts or processes seemed to be the only activity that could be pigeon-holed. Therefore they were not divided and placed under subject matter headings, but rather under the one general heading of activities. However, the general heading was divided into the following five sub-headings, according to the type of experience: (1) Reading; (2) Listening; (3) Experimental; (4) Observational; (5) Conversational.

1. Reading
   Informational and literary material in
   a. Books
   b. Magazines
   c. Newspapers
   d. Pamphlets
   e. Catalogues
   f. Time-tables
   g. Charts
   h. Bulletin boards
   i. Blackboard
   j. Recipes
   k. Thermometer
2. Listening to
   a. Talks on nature, health, travel
   b. Explanations
   c. Stories read and told
3. Experimental
   a. Caring for pets
   b. Caring for plants
   c. Arranging and blue printing: flowers, leaves, ferns
   d. Making, arranging, labelling, and numbering collections, such as: shells, stones, nests, cocoons, dolls, costumes
   e. Keeping charts and records of: migration of birds, height, weight, food, special dates
   f. Making a balanced aquarium
   g. Making tree box
   h. Preparing and cooking foods
   i. Weighing and measuring: children, food materials
   j. Finding cost of articles: seeds, foods, materials
   k. Keeping game scores
   l. Practicing to fix facts, processes

m. Examining illustrative material
n. Giving talks with and without lantern
o. Making floor maps
p. Tracing trips
q. Making scrapbooks: home life, community life, primitive life, colonial life, modern life
r. Having a rest period
s. Playing number games
t. Playing store—for number purposes
u. Playing train—for number purposes

4. Observational
   a. Seasonal changes: weather changes, life changes
   b. Germination of seeds
   c. Metamorphism
   d. Moving picture experiences—science, travel, lives of others
   e. Keystone lantern experiences
5. Conversational
   a. Discussions of: readings, experiments, trips, talks, things observed
   b. Plan making of trips, experiments

III. Equipment and Materials

1. Tables for 40 children
2. Chairs for 40 children
3. Desk for teacher
4. Chair for teacher
5. Demonstration desk with outlet
6. Window work shelf
7. Work bench
8. Book case
9. Filing case
10. Bulletin board
11. Blackboard, 3′ x 15′
12. Sink
13. Flower box
14. Tree box
15. Mammal cage
16. Reptile cage
17. Bird cage
18. Insect cage
19. Aquarium
20. Dip net
21. Many battery jars
22. Many bottles with rubber stoppers
23. Wall thermometer (large)
24. Magnet
25. Rubber filings
26. Magnetic compass
27. Magnifying glass
28. Globe of earth
29. Maps—state, United States, world
30. Flashlight
31. Glass prism
32. Motion picture machine
33. Keystone lantern and slides
34. Electric stove or grill, with cooking utensils, serving dishes
35. Electric iron
36. Scales—large and small
37. Rulers—yardsticks, tape measures
38. Measuring cups—all sizes
39. Clock
40. Arithmetic games—as dominoes, ten pins, ring toss, beanbag
41. Toy money
42. Pictures—all types for room
43. Books, magazines, catalogues, pamphlets, time-tables
44. Blueprint paper
45. Sand table
46. Collections—rocks, minerals, stones, dolls, costumes, flags—U. S. and other lands
47. Individual lockers (in hall outside of room)
48. Store room

IV. References for Children

1. Elementary Science

Bell, *Jane Louise's Cook Book.* Order from Educational Playthings, New York City.

Burgess, *Bird Book for Children,* Little, Brown & Co.

Du Puy, *Our Animal Friends and Foes, Our Insect Friends and Foes.* John C. Winston Co.

Keeler, *Working with Electricity.* Order from Educational Playthings, New York City.

Patch, First Lessons in Nature Study. *Holiday Pond.* Macmillan Co.

Reed, *Bird Guide. Flower Guide.* Doubleday, Doran.

Rogers, *Trees Every Child Should Know.* Grosset and Dunlap.

2. Social Studies

Carpenter, *Journey Club Travels.* American Book Co.

Perkins, *The Twin Series.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Reed, *Social Science Readers.* Charles Scribner's Sons.

V. *References* for Teachers

1. Elementary Science

Abbot, *The Earth and the Stars.* D. Van Nostrand Co.

Brooks, *Why the Weather?* Harcourt Brace and Co.

Brownlee, Fuller and Others, *Elementary Principles of Physics.* Allyn and Bacon.

Caldwell and Meier, *Open Doors to Science, with Experiments.* Ginn and Co.

Chapman, *Handbook of Birds of Eastern North America.* D. Appleton and Co.

Comstock, *Handbook of Nature Study, The Spider Book, A Manual of the Study of Insects, How to Know the Butterflies.* Comstock Publishing Co.

Craig, *Tentative Course of Study in Elementary Science.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Curtis, *Guide to the Trees.* Greenberg.

Fall, *Science for Beginners.* World Book Co.

Gager, *Fundamentals of Botany.* P. Blakiston's Sons and Co.

Loomis, *Field Book of Common Rocks and Minerals.* G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Lutz, *Field Book of Insects,* G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mathews, *Field Book of American Wild Flowers.* G. P. Putnam's Sons.

McCurdy, *Garden Flowers.* Doubleday, Doran.

McKready, *A Beginner's Guide to the Stars.* G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Rose, *Feeding the Family.* Macmillan Co.

Taylor, *Guide to the Wild Flowers.* Greenberg.

Vinal, *Nature Guiding.* Comstock Publishing Co.

Whitcomb and Beveridge, *Our Health Habits.* Rand, McNally and Co.

2. Number

Osburn, *Corrective Arithmetic.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Thorndike, *New Methods in Arithmetic.* Rand, McNally and Co.

Thorndike, *The Psychology of Arithmetic.* Macmillan Co.

3. Social Studies

Course of Study, Board of Education, Rochester, New York.

Welling and Calkins, *Social and Industrial Studies for Elementary Grades.* J. B. Lippincott Co.

4. General

Hosic, *The Coöperative Group Plan.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Knox, *School Activities and Equipment.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Moore, *The Primary School.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Mossman, *Principles of Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

5. Addresses

American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York City. (Posters, pamphlets, bulletins.)

Catchpole, A., Naturalist, 625 Amsterdam Ave., New York City. (Fish, turtles, water plants, etc.)

Chicago Apparatus Company, 701 W. Washington Boulevard, Chicago, Ill. (Science and chemical.)

Demoyer-Geppert Company, 5235 Ravenwood Ave., Chicago, Ill. (Globes, maps, etc.)

Geography Supply Bureau, 314 College Ave., Ithaca, New York. (Minerals, rocks, maps.)

Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa. (Lantern slides, etc.)

National Geographic Society, Washing-

ton, D. C. (Magazines, pamphlets, pictures.)
Perry Picture Company, Golden, Mass. (Animal pictures.)
Ward's Natural Science Establishment, 84 College Ave., Rochester, New York. (Science supplies.)

FINE AND INDUSTRIAL ARTS

I. Specific objectives
1. To develop a desire for and an appreciation of beauty in the products of art and industry that have resulted from man's effort to supply his needs for food, clothing, shelter, records, utensils, tools and machinery, and recreation
2. To acquaint pupils with some of the processes of art and industry in order that they may grow in ability to choose and use their products intelligently
3. To afford opportunity for creative expression through the medium of construction, drawing, and designing[1]

A. Penmanship Objectives[2]
1. To develop the realization that skill in handwriting is needed to meet own needs
2. To form an ideal of good handwriting and an ambition to write well
3. To develop the ability to recognize own defects and to use remedial measures in overcoming them
4. To develop the ability to write with ease, a clear, simple, and legible script in own individual style

II. Activities—
Planning
Drawing
Cutting
Painting
Arranging
Making booklets
Designing
Folding
Pasting
Lettering
Decorating
Costume designing
Sewing
Weaving
Spinning
Construction with paper
Construction with wood
Measuring
Printing
Modeling
Writing
Letters
invitations
acceptances
friendly
carrying message home
Stories
Captions for moving pictures
Poems
Lantern slides
Labels
Greeting cards

III. Materials and Equipment
Tables and chairs—easily moved to permit free open spaces in which to work
3 Work benches, ranging in size to satisfy the needs of the children of the first, second, and third grades
3 Easels
Front blackboard
Two walls burlapped to permit the hanging of drawings and paintings, penmanship papers, etc.
Windows on one side
Cupboards
Wash bowl (in the room or in location easy of access and with running water)
Bookcase
Pencil sharpener
Filing cabinets for pictures
One lovely picture—colorful
Clay
Scissors
Paper
Construction
Bogus
Kraft
Manila

[1] Public Schools of Detroit.
[2] Montgomery, Alabama, Course of Study.

Colored
Unprinted newspaper
Wrapping paper
Pencils
Crayons
White
Colored
Erasers
Fasteners
Paste
Glue
Compo board
Thumb tacks
Needles
Thimbles
Raffia
Coping saws
Hand saws
Keyhole saws
Cans of paint
Paint brushes
Chisels
Files
Sandpaper
Rises
Rulers
Wood
Poplar
Pine

[Note.—Much of the wood for the construction work in connection with the projects would be brought in in the form of old crates and boxes.]

IV. References

1. Penmanship

Freeman and Dougherty, *How to Teach Handwriting.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Fourteenth Year Book, National Society for the Study of Education. Public School Publishing Co.

West, *Changing Practice in Handwriting Instruction.* Public School Publishing Co.

Elsbree, Halsey and Elsbree, *The Teacher's Handbook.* Teachers College, Columbia University.

Freeman, "The Scientific Evidence of the Handwriting Movement." *Journal of Educational Psychology.*

Freeman, *The Psychology of the Common Branches.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

O'Shea, *The Child, His Nature and His Needs.* Children's Foundation, Valparaiso, Ind.

2. Fine and Industrial Arts

Bonser and Mossman, *Industrial Arts for Elementary Schools.* Macmillan Co.

Brown, *Clay Modeling for Infants.* Pitman.

Mathias, *Beginnings of Art in the Public Schools.* Charles Scribner's Sons.

Buxton and Curran, *Paper and Cardboard Construction.* Manual Arts Press.

Sage and Cooley, *Occupations for Little Fingers.* Charles Scribner's Sons.

Sargent and Miller, *How Children Learn to Draw.* Ginn & Co.

Bonser, *The Elementary School Curriculum.* Macmillan Co.

Winslow, *Elementary Industrial Arts.* Macmillan Co.

Tappan, *Makers of Many Things.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Lester, *Clay Work: A Handbook for Teachers.* Manual Arts Press.

Recreation Room

I. Specific objectives (from the Elementary Course of Study, Trenton, New Jersey, public schools)

A. Music

1. To develop a love for the beautiful in music, a taste for choosing the best, and, above all, to have pupils arrive at the conception of music as essential to a well rounded, normal life
2. To give every child the use of his singing voice and pleasure in music as a means of expression

B. Physical Education

Shafer and Mosher, in their *Physical Education Handbook,* say: "Putting it very simply: physical education should afford the child a wholesome opportunity to express himself in the actual doing of worth while things. In the gymnasium we are not aiming for physical efficiency alone.

This should be accompanied with mental efficiency."

Jessie Feiring Williams says, "We seek to provide an opportunity for the individual to act in situations that are physically wholesome, mentally stimulating and satisfying, and socially sound."

C. Dramatization, Assembly Programs, and Parties
   1. Opportunity for creative expression
   2. To develop and make use of audience situation
   3. To develop poise, initiative, coöperation, and responsibility
   4. To correlate, where logical, with other subjects

II. Activities
   A. Music
      1. Rhythms
         a. Imitative
         b. Creative
      2. Appreciation
         a. Toy orchestra
         b. Piano selections
         c. Victrola records
         d. Radio
      3. Sight singing and drill work
      4. Rote songs
      5. Observation songs
      6. Singing for pure enjoyment
      7. Monotone drill
   B. Physical Education
      1. Activity plays
         a. Spontaneous: climbing, sliding, skipping, running, racing, jumping, throwing, swinging, galloping, etc.
         b. Dramatic plays: story plays, real and imaginary situations
      2. Games
         a. Rhythmic plays
            (1) Informal: highstepping horses, skating, flying, fairy dances, etc.
            (2) Formal: singing games: "Briar Rosebud," "Little Bobby Shafts," etc.
         b. Sense plays and games
            (1) Sight games: Hide the Ball; Run, Sheep, Run, etc.
            (2) Hearing games: Blind Man's Buff; Magic Music, etc.
            (3) Touch plays: Still Pond, No More Moving; Mystery Man, etc.
         c. Folk Dances: Chimes of Dunkirk, Carrousel, etc.
         d. Competitive games—
            (1) Chase: Three Deep, Tag, Puss in Corner, etc.
            (2) Skill: Going to Jerusalem, Roll the Ball, etc.
            (3) Relay: Beanbag Relay, Pass the Ball, etc.
         e. Posture Training
   C. Dramatics
      1. Spoken drama
      2. Pantomime
      3. Pageantry
      4. Puppet plays
      5. Celebration of special days
      6. Parties

III. Equipment and Materials
   A. Music
      1. Phonograph
      2. Piano (small movable one, if possible. "The Little Miessner" is considered very good)
      3. Band instruments (The following list is suggested from the Carl Fischer Musical Supply Company):

Bells	$0.10 each
Clappers	.05
Cymbals	1.25 a pair
Drum	1.75
Handsticks	.35
Metallophone	.95 each
Tambourines	.60
Triangles	.40

      4. Constructed instruments[1]
      5. Radio
      6. Pitch pipe
      7. Staff liner
      8. Large charts showing pictures of different instruments
      9. Sets of music textbooks (one set for each class)

[1] See Coleman, Satis, *Creative Music.*

10. Two or three sets of supplementary music books
11. Book case for teacher's reference books
12. Book case for children's reference books
13. Chairs and tables (to seat one class at a time)
14. Shelf or cupboard for textbooks

B. Physical Education
1. Slide
2. Swinging ladder
3. Swings
4. See-saws
5. Horizontal bar
6. Giant stride
7. Balancing bar
8. Climbing rope
9. Large building blocks
10. Jumping ropes
11. Bean bags
12. Balls—rubber, indoor, cage, volley, etc.
13. Victrola (use same one as for music)

Miss Garrison in her book, *Permanent Play Materials for Young Children,* gives the following criteria for judging materials:

1. The material must stimulate self-activity, leading the child to invention, originality, ingenuity, and industry
2. The materials must reach the child on his own level of maturity—they must be adapted to his ability to handle and manipulate with success, to his level of interest and to his powers of organization
3. They should represent good workmanship if they are to stand normal wear
4. They should be hygienic and sanitary

C. Dramatization, parties, programs, etc.
1. Large stage
2. Curtains
3. Screens
4. Chairs (to seat at least two classes)
5. Electric stove, gas stove or hot plate
6. Cupboard for dishes and silverware
7. Dishes and silverware (enough to use in serving one class and one guest for each member of the class)
8. Large serving table
9. Sink and running water

(6, 7, 8, 9, may be used by and provided for by the Parent-Teacher Association)

IV. References

A. Music

1. Books for children

Bacon, *Operas Every Child Should Know.* Grosset and Dunlap

Cather, *Pan and His Pipes, and Other Tales for Children*

Chapin, *Stories of Rheingold*

Lille, *Story of Music and Musicians*

Scobey and Horne, *Stories of Great Musicians*

Whitcomb, *Young People's Story of Music*

2. Books for the teacher

Baker and Kohlsaat, *Songs for the Little Child*

Churchill and Grindell, *Song Book I and II*

Coleman, *Creative Music for Children*

Conant, *The Children's Year*

Curwen, *Psychology Applied to Music Teaching*

Dann, *First Year Music Book*

Eliot, *Mother Goose Melodies*

Elson, *Book of Musical Knowledge*

Faulkner, *Listening Lessons in Music*

Gaynor, *Songs of Child World, Books I and II*

Howard, *Child Voice in Song*

Jones and Barbour, *Child Land, Books I and II*

Mason, *Orchestral Instruments*

Milne, Fraser, Simson, *Fourteen Songs (When We Were Very Young)*

Miessner, *Art Cycle Books*

Lists of music of all kinds—sheet, book, phonograph records for singing, rhythm, appreciation and other needs—are so fully worked out in *The School Music Handbook*, by Cundiff and Dykema, of Columbia University, that no further recommendation is felt necessary.

B. Physical Education

1. Equipment

Garrison, *Permanent Play Materials for Young Children.* Charles Scribner's Sons

Hunt, *A Catalog of Play Equipment.* Bureau of Educational Experiments

Knox, *School Activities and Equipment.* Houghton Mifflin Co.

Leonard, *Best Toys and Their Selection.* Leonard

Playthings (pamphlet). Bureau of Educational Experiments

Catalog, Hill Standard Company, Anderson, Indiana

Catalog, Narragansett Machine Company, Providence, Rhode Island

2. Teacher's Library

Bancroft, *Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium.* Macmillan Co.

Bowen and Mitchell, *Theory and Practice of Organized Play.* A. S. Barnes & Co.

Forbush, Manual of Play. Macrae Smith Co.

Burke and others, *A Conduct Curriculum.* Scribner's Sons

Lee, *Play in Education.* Macmillan Co.

Lehman and Witty, *Psychology of Play Activities.* A. S. Barnes & Co.

Moses, *Rhythmic Action Plays and Dances.* Milton Bradley Co.

Palmer, *Play Life in the First Eight Years.* Ginn & Co.

Sies, *Spontaneous and Supervised Play in Childhood.* Macmillan Co.

Wood, *Children's Play and Its Place in Education.* Duffield & Co.

C. Dramatics, assemblies, parties, etc.

Dramatics

Arvold, *The Little Country Theatre.* Macmillan Co.

Chubb, *Festivals and Plays.* Harper Brothers

Cook, *The Play Way.* Frederick A. Stokes & Co.

Grimball and Wells, *Costuming a Play.* Century Co.

Mackay, *How to Produce Children's Plays.* Henry Holt & Co.

MacClintock, *Literature in the Elementary School.* University of Chicago Press

Taylor, *Practical Stage Directing for Amateurs.* E. P. Dutton & Co.

Plays for Children (lists). American Library Association

Plays for Children Made by Children (leaflets). Francis W. Parker School, Chicago

IV. Conclusion

It was the opinion of the committee that the Coöperative Group Plan is making a valuable contribution to education. It can adjust itself to any situation, the school can be more economically equipped and administered, and it does not neglect the welfare of either child or teacher. It provides for growth of the child:

1. Through richer living
2. Through being better understood
3. Through being more wisely guided

It provides for growth of teacher:

1. Through having the opportunity to discuss problems as they arise
2. Through having the opportunity to specialize in those subjects which have the greatest appeal

The organization given in this report may or may not be practical or efficient. The only real way to find out is to put it into operation, keep careful records, and judge from the results.

EXEMPLIFYING GOOD CLASSROOM METHODS AND PROCEDURES

M. E. GILMORE
Principal, Wells School, Canton, Ohio

Certainly one of the important functions of a modern school is to exemplify and demonstrate good accepted educational principles, methods, and procedures. Only by some such plan can our schools keep abreast of what is good and modern in education.

At the present time the standards of educational principles, methods, and procedures are quite well stabilized. For instance, in the subject of reading two definite types are recognized—oral and silent. Both are important and deserve a distinct place in our school program. However, the aims, principles, method, and procedure are entirely different. In arithmetic, two types of materials are recognized—fact or mechanical, and thought or problem-solving materials. The former is accomplished through proper drill methods and procedures; the latter by inductive and deductive development processes. So it is with all subjects. Certain subject matter and basic principles should be recognized, then apply the method and procedure that will best accomplish the aims and objectives of that particular subject.

In the case about to be described, reading was taken as a starting point. It was considered an advisable subject with which to start inasmuch as it is recognized as the most important subject and the one upon which all others are based.

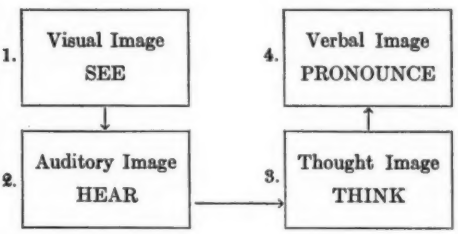
The procedure was as follows: Oral reading was first accepted for study and exemplification. An outline of the aims, principles, habits, psychology and hygiene, and procedure of oral reading was first studied and discussed in teachers' meetings. The plan used was:

ORAL READING

I. Aims:
   1. Expression
      a. Enunciation
      b. Pronunciation
      c. Observation of punctuation marks
      d. Proper pitch and tone of voice
   2. Thought to the listener

II. Habits:
   1. Short eye sweep (as compared to silent reading)
   2. Proper habits of utterance (lip and throat reaction, etc.)

III. Psychology and physiology of oral reading:



IV. Procedure:
   Step 1. Select material
   Step 2. Introduction and background to create interest
   Step 3. Drill on difficult words and phrases that may be "stumbling-blocks" when reading
   Step 4. Individual reading and discussion. (Have pupils in turn come before

the class to read. Those listening to carry on discussion.)

Step 5. *Read* or *tell* as a whole for organization, comprehension, etc.

Then different teachers made reports from various standard educational magazines which dealt with the subject involved. These were also reported at teachers' meetings. By this plan all teachers had the same general idea and information on the subject.

From this point certain teachers began to drill intensively on the plan and method as outlined. After a few weeks' drill various other rooms began to visit these particular classes for observation.

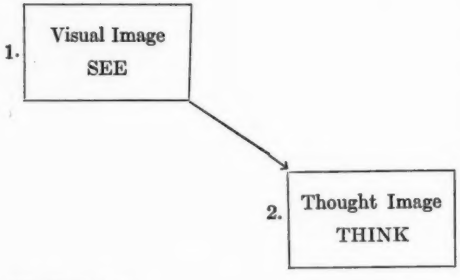
The same general plan was followed with silent reading, but with a wholly different outline of aims, methods, habits, and procedure. The following outline served as a basis in silent reading:

SILENT READING

I. Aims:
   1. Comprehension (getting thought)
   2. Speed in getting thought
   3. Organization of thought

II. Habits:
   1. Long eye sweep
   2. No lip movement
   3. No throat reaction or act of utterance

III. Psychology and Physiology of Silent Reading:



IV. Procedure:
   1. Select material (mainly content)
   2. Drill on difficult words and phrases that may be "stumbling-blocks" in getting thought. Aim for rapid and long eye sweep
   3. Direct the reading and discussion by "thought units." Estimate speed and comprehension
   4. Have pupil or pupils retell or write the story to further estimate comprehension and organization

Scale for Speed (Charters')

Grade	*No. Words Per Min.*	*Grade*	*No. Words Per Min.*
1	90	5	168
2	108	6	192
3	126	7	216
4	144	8	240

In the cases just described oral reading and silent reading were exemplified, but at another time other subjects would be studied and exemplified, with certain other teachers doing the demonstrating and all teachers carrying out the plans and outlines in a general way as was done in the case of reading. By this plan different teachers would have their part in exemplifying some subject in a specific way and all subjects in a general way.

The results were extremely interesting inasmuch as they brought forth the accepted aims, methods, and procedures in education for the information and use on the part of every teacher. It more closely organized and coördinated the various methods and procedures used throughout the school. It acquainted each teacher with the processes involved in the various school subjects and grades. It acquainted each teacher with the other teachers' problems. It created a closer and general school spirit.

It is the opinion of the writer that much can and should be done along this line. There is no better way to professionalize our business than by more closely coördinating and establishing that which is accepted as good in education.

GRADING READING SELECTIONS ON THE BASIS OF INTEREST

CLARENCE R. STONE
Extension Division, University of California, Berkeley, California

Two very extensive experiments to determine the ranking of certain poems and of certain literary prose selections as to interest appeal to children, and to determine the most appropriate grade location of each unit, have been reported. The one dealing with poetry is reported in *Children's Interests in Poetry* and the one dealing with prose units is reported in *Teachers College Record*, January, 1929, pages 285-309. In each of these studies the point of maximum interest appeal to the children as shown by data obtained has been taken as the sole basis for determining grade location.

There are three main questions involved: 1. Are the data presented in these reports significant in determining relative interest appeal of the selections used in a series of grades? 2. Is interest appeal a satisfactory sole criterion for grade location of reading units which have been selected by experts as desirable material? 3. Are the data presented in these studies a safe sole basis for grade location of reading selections?

In the first place, the writer desires to state that a careful study of these two reports inclines him to the judgment that the main value of these studies lies in ascertaining the relative interest appeal of the selections used experimentally in a series of grades. Teachers will be very safe in using the units ranking high in interest appeal in these studies.

For poems these data may be obtained by referring to *Children's Interests in Poetry*, pages 73-89, by Huber, Bruner, and Curry, published by Rand, McNally and Company. It should be pointed out, however, that 257 of the 789 poems of the *Poetry Books*, which were compiled as a result of the study, were not used in the teaching experiment, but were selected afterwards entirely upon the basis of expert judgment.

Data as to interest rank of a list of literary prose units selected by experts for grades four to six may be found in the account in the *Teachers College Record* referred to above and are reproduced in this article.

Having answered the first question in the affirmative, the writer ventures to answer the other two in the negative and to support his answer by a rearranged presentation of the data provided by Professor Bruner in his report in the *Teachers College Record.*

A few explanations of Table I are in order. To save space in printing, fractions in the rankings were dropped.

Since this table is derived from the information presented by Professor Bruner in his report in the *Teachers College Record*, it is necessarily limited to the data presented therein. This fact accounts for the interest rank of certain selections in one of grades 4, 5, and 6 not being given. Since the report gives data on a particular selection for only the grades in which it ranks higher than in other grades, it should be kept in mind that any missing rank in grades 4, 5, and 6 is lower than that of the three given.

The initial grade placement of a selection means the grade in which the selection was placed in the experimental books. The selections were placed in the experimental

TABLE I

SHOWING DATA EFFECTING GRADE PLACEMENT OF READING SELECTIONS

(Compiled from data published in the *Teachers College Record*, January, 1929, pp. 296–308.)

Reading Selections Initially Placed in Grades 4, 5, and 6	Interest Rank in Grades					Initial Grade Placement	Final Grade Placement	? = Change Questionable[1]
	3	4	5	6	7			
Ali Baba		6	16	19		5	6	?
Aladdin and His Wonderful Lamp		21	41	25		5	4	?
Allarm	36		29	56		4	5	?
A Handful of Clay	125		125	128		4	x[2]	
A Silent Heroine	38		31	22		4	6	?
A Dog of Flanders		41	47	38		4	6	?
A Strange Preparation for the New Year		119	116	86		6	x	
Bill Brown's Test		70	82	75		5	4	?
Billy, the Dog That Made Good		14	5	2		5	6	?
Boy Life on the Prairie		107	105	98		5	x	
Capturing the Wild Horse		87	86	107		5	x	
Chi-Wee and the Rabbit		17	8	6		5	6	?
Cheating the Flames		12	10	8		6	6	
Daniel Boone and the Founding of Kentucky		16	27	28		6	6	
Damon and Pythias		64	59	57		4	6	?
Fighting the Fire Monster		28	19	27		5	5	
Fighting a Depth Bomb		73	64	81		4	5	
Frightening the Indians	51	46		36		4	4	
Florence Nightingale		51	49	40		4	4	
Gulliver's Travels		11	26	17		5	6	?
Going for the Doctor		15	20	21		4	4	
Glory Goldie's Fishing		45	40	50		5	4	?
General Robert E. Lee		67	52	69		6	5	
Heroism in 1925		88	61	66		5	5	
Hard Lessons		124	119	138		5	x	
Hunting With a Camera		92	65	54		5	6	?
How the Black Stick Was Not Asked to Princess Angelica's Christening		126	121	129		5	x	
How the Chipmunk Got Its Stripes		109	109	76		4	x	
Ill Luck and the Fiddler		3	1	3		5	5	
Joan of Arc		1	2	7		6	4	?

[1] A question mark in this column indicates that the writer seriously questions that the data justify the change shown from that in the initial grade placement to that in the final grade placement.

[2] x = Selection not finally recommended for use.

TABLE I (*Continued*)

Reading Selections Initially Placed in Grades 4, 5, and 6	Interest Rank in Grades					Initial Grade Placement	Final Grade Placement	? = Change Questionable[1]
	3	4	5	6	7			
Jackanapes and the Pony		90	93	104		4	x	
Lincoln as a Boy		98	100	124		5	x	
Music Loving Bears		110	130	117		6	x	
Molly in Her Element		25	61	31		6	6	
Moni, the Goat Boy		61	44	31		5	6	?
On the Farm		83	87	59		4	6	
Pandora		25	46	51		5	5	
Pinocchio		31	24	15		4	5	?
Peril in the Grand Canyon		134	113	127		5	x	
Pomegranate Seeds	56	52		87		4	4	
Robinson Crusoe		10	54	61		5	4	
Rumpelstiltskin		18	37	41		4	4	
Rip Van Winkle		26	35	33		6	6	
Roland and Oliver		34	38	84		6	5	
Robin Hood		35	51	53		5	5	
Rolling the Hooksie Men		101	77	91		4	x	
Raymond Remembers the Rules		44	53	39		6	6	
Stories of King Arthur		7	24	60		6	5	
Sergeant York of Tennessee		62	42	26		5	6	
Sinbad, the Sailor		47	56	33		5	6	
The American Boy		117	108	117		5	x	
The Adventures of Ulysses		56	69		61	6	4	?
The Arab and the Camel	132	103		111		4	x	
The Angry Polar Bear	13	31	11			4	5	?
The Charcoal Burner	43		33	20		4	6	
The Crossing		125	110	113		5	x	
The Emperor's New Clothes	70	97	68			4	5	
The Fires That Need Not Have Happened		123		137	123	4–5–6	x	
The Flowers of Greenland		146	150	149		5	x	
The Grizzly as a Humorist		137	142	123		5	x	
The Grizzly's Sly Little Joke		73	79	91		4	x	
The Great White Doctor of Africa			43	44	56	6	6	
The Grass Lands That Help to Feed the World		138	141	146		5	x	
The Happy Prince		9		9	10	6	6	
The Keyland of Central Europe		132	130	136		5	x	
The Little Blue Fox		105	144	141		5	x	
The Legend of Sleepy Hollow		43	13	24		6	5	?
The Little Furry Ones That Slide Down Hill		42	39	42		4	4	

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TABLE I (*Continued*)

Reading Selections Initially Placed in Grades 4, 5, and 6	Interest Rank in Grades					Initial Grade Placement	Final Grade Placement	? = Change Questionable[1]
	3	4	5	6	7			
The Leaping Match		94	85	96		4	x	
The Little Cabin Boy		5	6	4		5	6	?
The Magic Prison	20		22	13		4	6	?
The Measure of Rice		84	102	95		5	x	
The Only Lion Farm in the World		60	67	64		6	4	?
The Pinetree Shillings		86	99	93		5	x	
The Porcelain Stove		19	32	10		4	6	?
The Rat That Could Speak		38	60	46		5	4	?
The Snow Battle		8	7	14		5	4	?
The Story of the Salmon		77	71	68		6	x	
The Unknown Soldier		66	76	85		4	4	
The Wary Wolf		116	88	72		5	x	
Washington and the American Army		90		133	127	6	x	
What Happened One St. John's Day		71	55	73		5	5	
William Tell	28	20	29			4	4	
Wolf, the Faithful Collie		4	3	1		5	6	?
Where Love Is, There God Is Also		58	48	46		6	6	
Why the Kingfisher Always Wears a Bonnet	143	129		115				
Wigwam Fires and White Man's Ways	145		151	122				
Thor's Wonderful Journey		68	84	72				

books in those grades where practice dictates as determined by courses of study and textbooks.

In Table IX in his article, Bruner presents data showing the effect of the experiment in changing the grade location of 108 selections. In Table I of his article he presents data for only 88 literary selections, and consequently this article is necessarily limited to a consideration of the data for these 88 selections. This article is not concerned with the informational narratives included in the tables in Bruner's article.

Now we come to a consideration of a very important conclusion of Dr. Bruner which the writer desires to challenge. He points out that his data reveals that only 22.2 per cent of the 108 selections are correctly placed by present practice and 77.8 per cent of the selections were moved to a different grade because of a higher rank in interest appeal. His table shows that 44.2 per cent of the selections were moved up one or two grades and 33.4 per cent of the selections were moved down one or two grades.

In this connection it is pertinent to raise

two questions: 1. Just what degree of superiority in interest appeal of a selection in one grade over another offsets the weight of experience of teachers, supervisors, and textbook makers as revealed in practice? 2. How reliable are the grade rankings of the selections in interest appeal resulting from the experiment?

It should be pointed out here that the experimenters report no attempt to determine the reliability of the rankings or of the differences in grade rankings. One wonders what is the probable error of the difference in grade rankings of a particular selection which results in a change in grade location of the selection. It is quite in order to ask whether or not the difference is sufficiently reliable to be significant and sufficiently large to overbalance the weight of expert judgment reflected in courses of study and textbooks.

For example, let us refer to the case of "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow" in Table I. It was originally placed in the sixth grade experimental book but finally changed to the fifth grade on the basis of a difference of 11 in rank on a scale of 153 ranks. In the first place, is this difference sufficiently large to offset expert judgment which has taken into consideration other factors than mere interest appeal, and, in the second place, is this difference a significant difference or merely one which is due in part or in entirety to chance? The experimenters have not attacked either of these problems, both of which are fundamental.

When one contemplates the difficulty of the vocabulary of the selection in question and knows from experience that an intensive slow procedure would be necessary for an *average* fifth grade group to appreciate this selection, he is inclined to think that a relatively large difference that has been shown to be a real difference and not one due to chance error would be required to justify the change made in grade placement.

In the case of a number of selections the data with reference to interest rank in the different grades are not consistent. For example, "Aladdin and His Wonderful Lamp" has a rank of 21 in the fourth grade, 41 in the fifth grade, and 25 in the sixth grade. Why should the interest appeal of this selection be so much stronger in both the fourth and the sixth grades than in the fifth grade? In the case of a considerable number of the selections, there exists this inconsistency in the data. This factor in itself is sufficient to challenge the reliability of the data and consequently seriously to question the changes in grade placement of selections made in these cases.

In addition to these cases, the writer seriously questions any change in grade placement solely on the basis of a difference in ranking in interest appeal unless the difference between the ranking in the original grade and the final grade is a relatively large one on the total scale of 153 ranks, and especially doubts the wisdom of such change on the basis of a small difference when we know nothing of the probable error of the difference.

TABLE II

EVALUATION OF CHANGES IN GRADE PLACEMENT OF SELECTIONS

Number of selections in Table I not finally used in grades 4, 5, or 6	31
Number of selections with unchanged grade placement	21
Number of selections changed to another grade	36
Number of changes seriously questioned on the basis of data presented	25

Table II presents a summary of the data of Table I with reference to the final disposition of the 88 literary selections. Of

the 57 selections assigned to grades 4, 5, or 6 from this list, 36 were given a final grade placement different from that initially given on the basis of expert opinion as evidenced in courses of study and textbooks. Of these 36 changes, the writer holds that 25 are open to serious question. In other words, he holds that it is probable that these changes are for the worse rather than for the better, due to the probable unreliability of the data and to the fact that in many cases the relatively small difference in interest rank, even if significant, is not sufficient to offset other important factors involved. Since 25 of the 36 changes in grade placement are open to serious question, it seems fair to venture the statement that the final grade placements may not be as good, on the whole, as the initial placement.

CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

1. It is the opinion of the writer that the studies discussed in this article yield valuable determinations for a group of grades concerning the most interesting and the least interesting poems and prose selections among those studied experimentally. In this connection it should be remembered that only a limited number of desirable selections can be included in even such extensive experiments as those considered and that many excellent selections were not available to the experimenters because of copyright restrictions.

2. The writer holds that interest appeal is not a satisfactory sole criterion for grade location of reading selections. Other factors, such as difficulty of comprehension as determined by vocabulary burden, sentence structure, and tests of comprehension of the significant meanings by the pupils, should be considered as well as interest appeal in determining grade location of literary selections.

As a result of his extensive investigations, Uhl[3] found that over-maturity of selections was the most important factor contributing to unsatisfactory results in reading. In case the difference in interest rank of a selection in two successive grades is small, it is wise to give expert judgment large weight. When there is serious doubt as to grade placement, the selection should be placed in the higher of the two grades under consideration.

3. An attempt has been made to show that the data presented by Dr. Bruner in his article in *Teachers College Record*, January, 1929, do not constitute a safe basis for grade location of the selections studied. The writer holds that the initial grade placement of the selections on the basis of expert opinion, as reflected in courses of study and textbooks, is probably better than the final grade placement obtained from using interest-ranking data without any measure of reliability. It is highly important that there should be a reliability measure of any data used as a basis for classifying literary selections, especially when a particular factor is used as the sole criterion for grade placement.

[3] Uhl, W. L., *Materials of Reading*, p. 109.

THE STANDARDIZED TEST AS AN AID IN INDIVIDUAL DIAGNOSIS

OLIVE M. WALK
Rocky Ford, Colorado

Every forward movement in education has had for its goal the betterment of the individual, to the end that he will be more adequately equipped to adjust himself to the increasing complexities of life situations.

The testing movement which has swept through our schools is not an exception to this rule, for in measuring the accomplishment of a pupil we hope that we may be able to promote his growth, and, by so doing, increase his power of adjustment.

When a test is given we immediately begin to make comparisons. First come those of a general nature. We are all interested in the standing of our particular grade with respect to other grades throughout the country; therefore, we make a direct comparison of our group median with the nation-wide norm. Second, we compare our ranking as a grade with the rank of other grades in our school system. A third consideration, and by far the most important one, although I would not minimize the value of the general comparisons, is to be found in the comparison of an individual's record with his own previous attainments and with the attainments of others of his group. For, after all, the main purpose of the study of all test results should be a diagnosis of the individual needs of the various pupils of the group.

When a test is given, the paramount consideration is the child as an individual. How can this particular test be made an aid in pointing the way toward bringing the individual in the group to a fuller development? Are we to be content if our group median compares favorably with the established norm? After all, a norm means merely the accomplishment of fifty per cent of a great number of pupils in a specific grade. I believe that it is safe to say that it does not represent what they might be able to do if given the best of guidance. Therefore, may we not say that it is best not to be satisfied if a small majority of the pupils in our group rank above the country-wide norm or median?

I believe we are all agreed that the best attitude for the teacher to take is the one which will allow her to see each individual in her group as well as the whole group in perspective. The question in the teacher's mind should be: How can I so teach each pupil that he will be able to attain a degree of efficiency in the various subjects that will, when measured by a test, prove to be in excess of an established median? To accomplish this, it is necessary for the teacher to make a study of the needs of each child.

While it is true that the teacher is daily making individual diagnoses of the achievements of the various pupils, the standardized test furnishes a basis for further diagnosis. Then, what are some of the things she can learn from the test? First, the test will show what phases of the subject have been thoroughly mastered by the child, and it will at the same time reveal specific weaknesses in particular phases of the subject which it covers. Second, the teacher may not only be able to discern these strong

and weak points, but she may also be able to discover some of their underlying causes. Third, she may be able to find, through this study of the test, something that will suggest specific remedial measures. While the number of standardized tests are limited in the primary grades, especially in the first and second grades, those which are available will greatly aid us in our work.

Let us consider the subject of reading from the standpoint of diagnosis. Naturally, when a reading test is given we should make the various general comparisons which I have mentioned and which should be applied to all tests. Then comes our study to ascertain the causes of specific weaknesses:

1. Does the test indicate a limited vocabulary?
2. Does it show that the child is deficient in phonetic ability?
3. Does the test indicate carelessness on the part of the child?
4. Does it show inconsistency or skipping about from phrase to phrase or from paragraph to paragraph?
5. If the study is of a speed test, is the comprehension satisfactory but the speed low?
6. Does the speed rank well, while the comprehension is unsatisfactory?
7. Is there a low rank in both comprehension and speed?

But the study should not stop at this point. Further tests should be planned by the teacher for the purpose of discovering some of the causes of the particular weaknesses; careful study of each child should be made in every way possible; and with this knowledge as a background, the teacher should plan remedial exercises which will fit the needs of those who are weak in the subject. While taking these steps she should not lose sight of the upper fifty per cent of her group, for it frequently happens that, in our efforts to strengthen the weaker pupils, we neglect the upper half of the class.

As an illustration of what can be accomplished in the way of developing each child individually, a study made of one of our first grades is presented here. For the last two years we have given the Detroit Word Recognition test to our first grade pupils, the first test being given in January and the second one in April.

First, let us consider the results of the January test given in 1928 as compared with the results of the test for 1929 in a particular first grade—two different groups of pupils, but under the instruction of the same teacher. When the 1928 test was given, the room as a whole showed a very good ranking, the median for the group being two points above the norm. The following year the teacher varied her plan of instruction during the first half of the year, giving specific attention to methods of building up each pupil's vocabulary. The rank of this group of pupils when the test was given in January, 1929, bears the evidence of the effectiveness of this type of work with the individuals of the group, since only five pupils of a total of twenty-nine made scores which were below the norm for the midyear. Graph No. 1 shows this comparison.

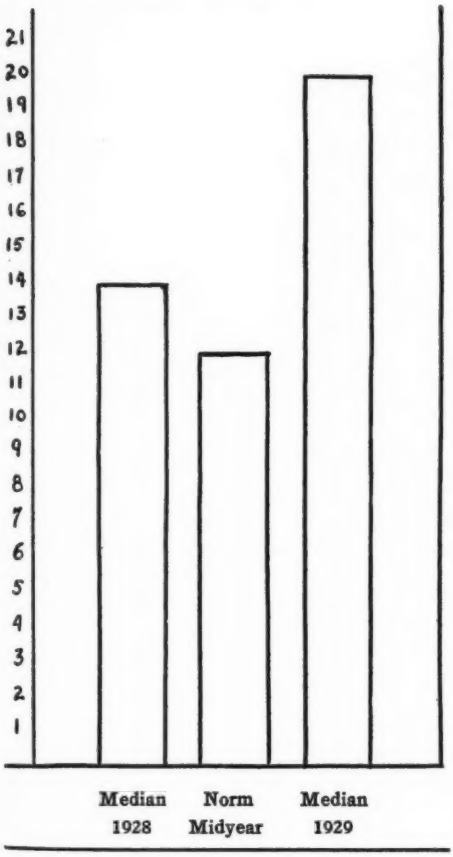
To further consider the effectiveness of individual instruction, let us trace the progress of these five pupils during the last semester. In Graph No. 2 is shown the rank of these five pupils in both midyear and spring tests.

In consideration of the January test results for these pupils, we immediately are impressed with the very low standing of pupils represented by numbers 1, 2, 3 and 4, whose scores are respectively 2, 3, 4 and 5. Pupil 5 has a score of 11, which is just one point below the midyear norm of 12.

A glance at the graph shows that the norm for spring has advanced eight points

GRAPH No. 1

A study showing the value of individual instruction. The graph shows a comparison of the results of two first grade tests given in January of 1928 and 1929 to two different groups of pupils under the instruction of the same teacher. The two groups were of comparatively equal ability. Only five pupils of the 1929 group ranked below the norm.



above the midyear norm. It will also be seen that the group median in the spring test stands practically as high above the norm as it did in the midyear test, thus showing that the group as a whole had been well taken care of.

In the spring test, the rank of these five pupils presented a very different aspect. A glance at the graph tells us that two of the pupils have exceeded the spring norm, while two others have almost reached it. Pupil 1 attained a rank almost equal to the spring norm, pupil 2 made a decided gain, but ranked the lowest of the five, pupil 3 also made considerable gain. Pupil 4 reached a high point, and pupil 5 stood the highest.

This question immediately arises: Has each of these pupils made a gain that is in keeping with his ability? In deciding this point it is interesting to know that each of these five pupils labored under a handicap. Pupil 1 is a Russian, pupils 2, 4, and 5 are Japanese, while pupil 3 is a frail child with a very serious eye defect. Thus we see that four of the five pupils had a language difficulty to overcome, while the American child labored under a much more serious difficulty.

Another point to consider is this: Have these pupils made a gain comparable with the rest of the group? For the purpose of making this comparison, the whole number of pupils was divided into three groups, the lower twenty-five per cent—which includes these five pupils and one other pupil—the middle fifty per cent, and the upper twenty-five per cent. The gain in score made by each group was then figured. The results of this comparison are shown in Graph No. 3. This study showed that the lowest twenty-five per cent of the group made an average gain of fifteen points, the middle fifty per cent made an average gain of eight points, while the upper twenty-five per cent made an average gain of six points.

In making a comparison of this sort it is well to remember that it would be impossible for those who ranked in the upper quartile to show as great a gain as

the rest of the group because the range of the test would not permit it. Also, the gain in points would be affected by the high ranking attained by the majority of the pupils on the first test. However, this comparison does show us that the lower twenty-five per cent of the class made a gain that is quite remarkable.

In the subject of arithmetic we need the same careful diagnosis of individual difficulties.

Some tests lend themselves more readily to a diagnostic study than others do, but all tests, both standardized and informal, admit of some diagnosis. In the first and second grades we have the various addition and subtraction facts to consider, while in the second and third grades we have also the multiplication and division facts to be mastered by each pupil.

It is readily seen that here as in reading we need to study each pupil's test paper and note the various types of mistakes. Let us consider addition from this standpoint.

1. What type of problem is most frequently solved incorrectly?
2. What combinations are missed most frequently?
3. Does the difficulty lie in the handling of the zero?
4. Do the mistakes arise from the inability to carry in column addition?
5. Are they caused by a lack of ability to handle the higher decades?

These, as well as other facts, will be helpful in determining the specific weakness of each pupil.

In our testing program, it has been a practice to diagnose the standardized tests which we give in the fundamentals of arithmetic. A diagnosis of the Woody Scale made by us may serve as an illustration. This scale, as you know, consists of a page of problems in each of the four fundamentals of arithmetic. Each page is graded as to difficulty and a wide variety of problem types is represented. Each example is numbered, thus making the work of diagnosis comparatively easy.

Our plan is this: The papers for each grade are considered separately and then the results are combined. The number of times each type of example is incorrectly worked is noted and tabulated. For example, in making the diagnosis for the combined third grade group, problem Number 1 was missed no times, Number 2 was missed once, Number 3 was missed twice, etc.

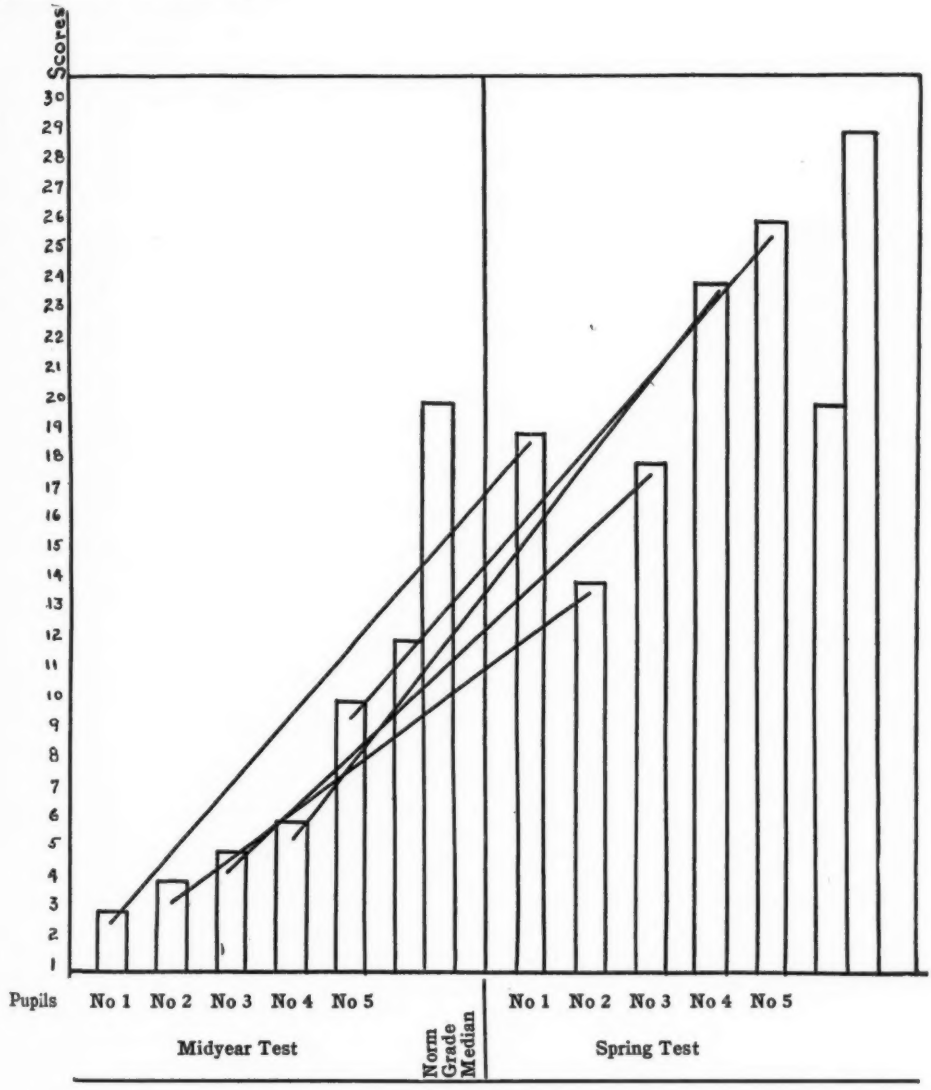
You will readily see that with such a diagnosis sheet before her, the teacher is immediately equipped with a knowledge that will greatly aid her in her plan of attack with the whole group. Her next step is the consideration of each child's test paper. Then, with further diagnosis, she will be able to determine the type of examples certain children are working incorrectly and the reasons for the various mistakes.

As an example of efficient work with the individuals of the group, the results of a third grade study of two tests given in addition—one in September, the other in April—are presented. The test used was the Woody Scale. In this study only those pupils who took both tests are being considered. These results are given in Graph No. 4, which shows the progress of each pupil individually.

The lower graph shows the results of the September test, and the upper one the results of the spring test. We read the graph from left to right. The heavy black lines represent the norms for September and April. Each square represents a pupil. The scores are shown at the bottom of the graph, and the number of squares above a certain score indicates the number of pupils who made that score.

GRAPH No. 2

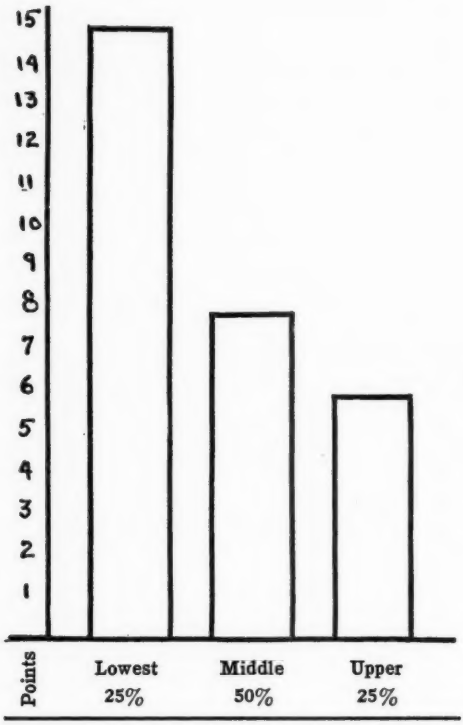
A first grade study based upon the Detroit Word Recognition Test. Graph shows the individual progress of the five pupils ranking below the norm when the midyear test was given to a particular first grade group.



On looking at the graph of the September test results, we are immediately aware of the very low rank of the room as a whole. We see that in the fall three pupils made a score of 5, seven pupils a score of 6, five pupils a score of 7, four pupils a

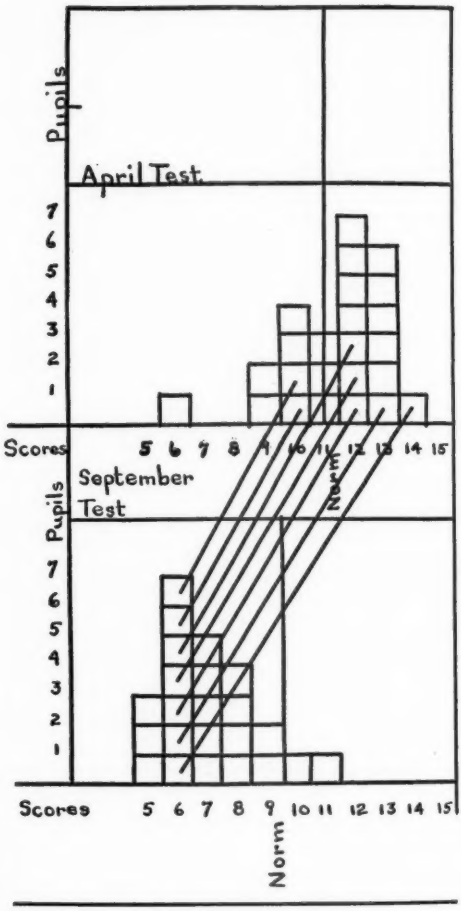
GRAPH No. 3

A study based on the same tests as graphs 1 and 2. Gain in points shown by a comparison of the results of the midyear and spring word recognition test given in grade one, 1929, to the same group. The lower 25 per cent includes the five pupils whose individual progress is shown, and one other pupil.



GRAPH No. 4

A study in individual progress based on two tests in addition. The Woody Scale B was used. The graph shows the progress of the individuals of a third grade during a school year. Pupils are represented by squares.



score of 8, and two pupils a score of 9, all of which are below the norm. Only two pupils have gone beyond the norm, which means that 90 per cent of this particular group of pupils were below standard when the fall test was given.

When considering the results of the spring test, we find, of course, that the norm for spring has advanced, but we also see that most of the pupils who had not reached the norm on the fall test have either reached the spring norm or traveled beyond it. The graph of the spring results shows only six squares on the left of the black line which represents the norm. This means that, when the spring test was given, practically 75 per cent of the class made scores that exceeded the

country-wide norm, and that five of the six who ranked lowest almost reached it.

Let us study the progress of a few of the individuals represented by these two graphs. Following the diagonal black lines, let us trace all of the seven pupils who made a score of 6 points. In so doing we will note the following facts: One of these pupils stood highest in the second test; another was one of the six pupils who ranked second highest in score; three others made a score of 12, and the last two almost reached the norm, since both made a score of 10.

The significance of these studies is quite evident. They make plain the value of a diagnosis of the needs of each pupil. They verify what can be accomplished when a teacher gives careful attention to individual instruction. They show how a test may be used as an aid in the diagnosis of each pupil's needs, as well as a measure of individual accomplishment. They illustrate one means of paving the way toward the accomplishment of the real purpose of the school—the personal advancement and development of each individual of which it is composed.[1]

OUTLINE OF A CHARACTER EDUCATION PROGRAM

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Sterling, Colorado, Junior High School is attempting a program of both direct and indirect character training. The program has evolved from an attitude rather than having been the direct and deliberate application of any plan or method. It is, therefore, rather difficult to separate from the other educative forces of the school and still more difficult to give a concrete analysis of the complete program without breaking it up into unnatural units. Probably the most important part of their program is the shaping, directing, and supervising of the "character education attitude" of the faculty. Yet that phase of the work is in constant motion. The following is an attempt to outline the most important features of the program.

I. Faculty Preparation.

1. Three months' study on the social, physical, mental, and material attributes of the *ideal boy* and the *ideal girl*, to establish a working philosophy and a goal. (Data of this study are available.)
2. Attitudes through social development (reports by all members of the faculty of courses taken in summer school relative to character training).
3. Reports and discussions of prominent books and articles:

   Miller, H. C., *New Psychology and the Teacher.* A. and C. Boni Co. (1927).

   Thayer, V. T., *Passing of the Recitation.* D. C. Heath & Co. (1928).

   Charters, W. W., *Teaching of Ideals.* Macmillan Co. (1928).

   Mort, Paul, *The Individual Pupil.* American Book Co. (1928). This book is being studied in faculty meetings and builds up a clear-cut, scientific attitude of adjustment of many character problems.

   Other books to which teacher has had access and which many have selected and read.

[1] The teachers of the two grades in which these studies were made are: Ethel La Shier, Grade I, Washington Building; Doris Bender, Grade III, Lincoln Building, Rocky Ford Schools.

4. A course in mental hygiene in which several teachers participated. Books studied and read:

   Blanton, Smiley, and Blanton, *Child Guidance.* Houghton Mifflin.

   Thom, Douglas, *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child.* Appleton.

5. Faculty Study Group of an extension course in "Problems of Curriculum," in which a good beginning was made for curriculum work in character training. Some actual laboratory work was done along this line.

II. Direct Plan.

1. The Auditorium.
   a. Purpose: a laboratory of character training.
   b. Type: classes of from sixty-five to one hundred, three times each week, in a special classroom under a special, full-time teacher.
   c. Qualifications of teacher: since work is new and little in the way of professional training is to be found, best type of teacher is one with great deal of initiative, originality, and one who can maintain discipline through interest. Teacher with dramatic and literary or musical qualifications is best.
   d. Types of work:
      (1) Willingness and helpfulness. All types of work in the auditorium are voluntary. No one is forced to respond. No obligations in the class except that pupil leave others who are interested alone. No grades are given in the work. Work is done for the sheer love of doing it.
      (2) Initiative. All programs and classes of the auditorium are simply suggested by the auditorium instructor in order keep it within control. From there on it is completely socialized, pupil committee chairmen, stage managers, directors, judges, readers, etc.
      (3) Judgment. *Studies in Conduct,*[1] a textbook for the auditorium. Life situations from this text presented each week, followed by period of "You be the Judge" propositions. This text presents stories, dramatizations, poems and pageants, which we use regularly in:
         (a) Training in recognition of right and wrong.
         (b) Development of desire to do right and hatred of wrong-doing.
         (c) Habit formation in school, involving choice of wrong and right.

This text study covers the following character attributes: (1) courage, (2) wise use of knowledge, (3) industry, (4) truth and honesty, (5) healthfulness and cleanliness, (6) helpfulness and unselfishness, (7) charity, (8) humility and reverence, (9) responsibility, (10) appreciation of beautiful.

In topic III is shown the attempt to develop actual *life situations* through the Point System along the line of each of the above attributes.

III. Indirect Plan.

1. The Point System.

   Purpose: To recognize worthy effort and achievement in all lines of endeavor and to encourage the spirit of loyalty and coöperation among pupils. It is the plan of Life to love the job for itself. However, many of us must first be drawn to the task or the achievement with the idea of a reward of some kind in mind, before we really learn *how pleasant the task is.* That is the spirit that this plan attempts to encourage.

   Plan: (1) All pupils from grades 5 to 8 are eligible to receive an award of the Sterling Junior High School letter emblem. The second year a white bar will be added; the third year two white bars, and the fourth year three white bars. Pupils obtaining a total of 100 points in the fifth grade, 110 points in the sixth grade, 125 points in the seventh grade and 140 points in the eighth grade are entitled to an

[1] Hague, Chalmers, and Kelly, *Studies in Conduct,* University Publishing Co., Chicago, 1928.

award, if the points are properly distributed.

(2) Any pupil who accumulated 85% of the necessary points for an award may carry half of his points over to the following year, but no points may be accumulated after two years.

(3) Points must be distributed as follows: 20% in each of the four "Groups" A, B, C and D; 20% in any group or groups.

a. Courage (all competitive points)
b. Wise use of knowledge (Group A-13, Group B-15 to 23, Group C-5, Group D-1, 4 and 6)
c. Industry (Group A-11, Group B-1 to 23, Group C-1, 3, 4, 5, 6)
d. Truth and honesty (Group A-7, Group C-7, Group D-5)
e. Healthfulness and cleanliness (Group A-8–14, Group D-8)
f. Charity (Group D-1 and 7)
g. Responsibility (all activities involving self-control and control of others)
h. Appreciation of beautiful (Group B-22 and 23, Group C-5, Group D-10 and 11)

Note.—In spite of reward for effort feature of this plan, we believe that it is a necessary feature to get many people *started* in the habit formation of good practices. The figures below refer to the items under the point system.

2. Other Phases of Indirect Teaching.
   a. Pupil Self-Analysis Scale,[2] given twice each year to stimulate pupil's thought along these lines and made a part of his records for adjustment cases.
   b. Sterling Base of Colorado Psychopathic Hospital with full-time physician in charge. A new and positive force in adjusting character attitudes of teachers and parents as well as pupils.
   c. Annual election of "Head Boy" and "Head Girl" in which the qualifications and campaign talk is a personification of fine qualities of character rather than popularity.
   d. Provision for twenty-two School Service Committees, each ranging from three to ten in membership, in which service is voluntary and unsolicited.
   e. Code of fairness and sportsmanship in athletics used as basis of participation.
   f. Visual education in character.[3]

3. Plans and Propositions Under Way or Being Discussed.
   a. Report cards: grade of citizenship on report cards now a grade determined entirely by the teacher who renders the lowest grade.
      (1) Shall a plan be devised whereby the pupils assist in determining the citizenship value of fellow pupils, just as we do among our neighbors?
   b. Closer correlation of regular class work with the auditorium classes.

4. Objective Tests.

   Have used these only with individual cases and not very widely. Haven't learned to appreciate them as yet.

[2] Taken from Iowa Plan, Character Education Institute, Chevy Chase, Washington, D. C.
[3] See discussion of this subject by Essert, Paul L., "Signposts of Character," *Journal of Education*, January 30, 1928.

THE CLEARING HOUSE

A STUDY OF THE EVOLUTION OF MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS—SIXTH GRADE

The major topic in the social studies course for our 6B is: Manufacturing: How does it influence our lives? Is it the same in other parts of the world? Has it always been so? How have the changes come about? We decided to use as the special topic for development, "The Evolution of Musical Instruments." The suggestion for the study came from the class when Mendelssohn's "Spinning Song" was played on the victrola as we were studying about the spinning of flax. The music was repeated a number of times on different days and the pupils began to question as to the kinds of musical instruments, both early and late, and how the growth or changes had come. The story of the rain dance of the Pueblo Indians and the making of the first rain rattle took us back to primitive instruments. Interest was aroused and the search for the information they desired started.

As the work progressed, it called for contributions from practically every subject in the curriculum, thus vitalizing the whole work. All of the English work came in for its share—the reading through stories, description, research; the language and spelling through both oral and written work (stories and a play). The music furnished the words and music for the rain dance and the puppet operetta. The rain dance brought in physical culture. The girls' sewing helped through the making of a wall hanging and the dressing of the puppets. Arithmetic made the measurements and gave the correct proportion in the wall hanging and the puppet stage. Many demands were made on the art work. There was the construction of the musical instruments and the stage for the puppet show, besides the making of patterns and puppets. The main contribution of art was the rhythmical drawing of a scene. Nature work also had its part, as the study of flax gave us our starting point and the cornstalk, gourd, and reeds which furnished materials for some of the instruments were studied.

The work has resulted in:

1. An increased knowledge of and interest in musical instruments of all times.
2. The development of initiative, ingenuity, and leadership through getting materials for and planning ways of making their musical instruments.
3. The recognition of the fact that our present-day instruments are the outgrowth of the music of primitive peoples.
4. The creation of an atmosphere of interest and enjoyment in the learning process, which made the work a pleasure.
5. The realization by the pupil of how much he owes to others for the enjoyment he has through music—the great lesson of interdependence.

Outline of a Study of the Evolution of Musical Instruments

I. Search for information and materials.
   - A. First-hand information:
     A visit to museum to see the collection of musical instruments.
   - B. Information obtained by reading:
     1. Reference books.
     2. Supplementary books.
     3. Clippings from newspapers.
     4. Bible.
   - C. Illustrative material:
     1. Pictures in books from the home, library, and the newspapers.
     2. Post cards brought by pupils.
     3. Picture collection from the library.
   - D. Materials for construction:
     1. Boxes, cardboard, tagboard, wrap-

ping paper, crêpe paper, wall paper and border.

2. Glasses, bottles, flower-pots, cans, gun-shells, cocoanut shells, walnut shells, can-tops, galvanized stove-pipe, test tubes, baking-dishes, lemon rind, ball.
3. Stones, rice, shot, buttons, beans, nails, screw-eyes.
4. Reed, bamboo, cornstalk, fishing pole, gourd, clothespins, doweling, plastic wood, embroidery hoops, spool, chair leg, cigar box.
5. Adhesive tape, beeswax, paraffin, shoelace, twine, chicken feathers, turkey feathers, rubber bands, wire.
6. Cotton and linen cloth, embroidery cotton, thread, cotton tubing, wool hair, odd pieces of silk.
7. Crayolas, paints.

II. Contributions of different subjects in the curriculum.

A. Music:

1. Knowledge of history of musical instruments.
   a. Three classes of instruments: percussion, wind, stringed.
   b. How each kind originated.
      (1) Percussion instruments.
      Indian lore tells us that the first rattle was made by Nalukee, the old chief of the Pueblo Indians, to attract the attention of their rain gods to their great need of rain by the sound of the rolling of the corn and pebbles on the hard shell of the gourd.
      (2) Wind instruments.
      According to Egyptian, Greek, and Roman mythology, the first wind instruments were made by Pan, who, when chasing the wood nymph, Syrinx, accidentally broke off the tops of the reeds into which Diana had changed S y r i n x. Pan's breath blowing across the broken ends of the reeds made a musical sound. Pan, interested, worked till he made the first set of pan-pipes—the first wind instrument (see "Story of Pan").
      (3) Stringed instruments.
      Many countries used the lyre, but we always connect it in thought with the Greeks, though really the idea came to them from Asia. According to Greek mythology, Mercury, when only one day old, made the first lyre from a dried tortoise shell. Later, having killed two of Apollo's cattle, he gave Apollo the lyre as a peace offering. Greek statues represent Apollo as the god of music (see "Story of Apollo").
   c. Names of instruments belonging to each class.
   d. How they were made.
2. Knowledge about music.
   a. Development of the scale.
   b. Development of writing music.
3. Practice in composing music.
   a. Words of the rain song.
   b. Music for the rain song.

B. Geography.

1. Location of countries that have contributed most to the development of music: Italy, France, Spain, Germany, Russia, Scotland, England, Scandinavia, America.
2. Type of music of a country is influenced by climatic conditions in just the same way as the climate influences the home and industrial life.
   a. Music of northern countries inclined to be more of the heavy, somber, mythical type.
   b. Music of southern countries more inclined to be of the light, happy, romantic type.

C. Literature.

1. References to musical instruments in the Bible.
2. Poems read and learned wholly or in part:
   a. Ode to the Skylark—Shelley
   b. The Angler's Reveille—Van Dyke
   c. A Morning Song—or Hark! Hark! the Lark—Shakespeare
   d. The Ballad of the Fiddler—O'Sullivan
   e. The Eternal Spring—Milton
   f. March, The Rivulet } Bryant
   g. Vision of Sir Launfal—Lowell
   h. The Brook—Tennyson
   i. April and May—Emerson
   j. The Bells—Poe
   k. The Bobolinks—Cranch

   After reading the story of Ling Lun and the Chinese scale, we found much of music in these nature poems.

D. Language.
   1. Oral and written presentation of knowledge.
   2. Judging relative value of written work.
   3. Writing a play.
   4. Writing a song.
   5. Writing an invitation.

E. Civics: A development of
   1. Initiative.
   2. Ingenuity.
   3. Leadership.
   4. Teamwork or coöperation.

F. Art.
   1. Creative expression through
      a. Construction.
         (1) Musical instruments: rattle, drum, bones, gong, cymbal, triangle, bells, marimba, banjo, violin, panpipes.
         (2) Puppet stage, properties and setting.
         (3) Puppets.
      b. Drawing.
         (1) Patterns.
         (2) Scenery.
         (3) Rhythmic drawing.
         (4) Some of the simpler instruments.
   2. Appreciation.
      a. Pictures of music.
         (1) Song of the Lark.
         (2) The Child Handel.
         (3) St. Cecelia.
         (4) Some great musicians: Mendelssohn, Beethoven, Schubert.

G. Physical Culture.
   1. Training in Indian Rain Dance.

H. Sewing.
   1. Appliquéd wall hanging representing a concert of ensemble music taken from a carving in an Egyptian tomb in the Great Pyramid in Gizeh.
   2. Puppets' clothes.

I. Nature study.
   1. Planting and cultivation of flax and getting the fibers.
   2. Planting and study of gourd.
   3. Structure of
      a. Cornstalk.
      b. Reeds, bamboo.

III. Indirect contacts furnishing learning situations.

A. Language.
   1. Organization of informational material for oral presentation to the class.
      a. Facts and stories learned.
   2. Writing of facts or stories to preserve knowledge.
   3. Writing invitation to attend the program.

B. Spelling.
   1. All new words.

C. Reading.
   1. Silent.
      a. To get information.
   2. Oral.
      a. To give information.
      b. For verification of statement made.
      c. Reading a prepared unit for class criticism.

IV. Outcomes.

A. Knowledge.
   1. Information about musical instruments.
      a. The three classes of instruments.
      b. Names of instruments belonging to each class.
      c. Where and how each originated.
      d. How they are made.
      e. What are their uses.
   2. Information about the development of the scale.
   3. Information about the development of writing music.
   4. Information about carillons.

B. Skills.
   1. Increased ability to obtain information from books.
      a. Selection of important facts.
      b. Use of table of contents, index, etc.
   2. Increased ability to organize knowledge for presentation to others in both oral and written forms.
   3. Increased vocabulary.
   4. Increased ability to express one's thoughts before others.
   5. Increased ability for creative expression through drama, song, drawing, and construction.
   6. Increased ability to draw and construct.

C. Habits and attitudes.
   1. Habit of investigation.
   2. Habit of voluntarily seeking information.
   3. Appreciation of sources of available information.
   4. An appreciation that the spirit of creative music differs among different nationalities.
   5. Pride in his own work and that of his classmates.
   6. Respect for the work of others.
   7. Desire to contribute to the work.
   8. Attitude of coöperation.

The following is a program which the children developed as a result of the study.

INTRODUCTION

Perhaps you would like to know something about our music—the beginning, how we progressed, and what we have accomplished.

It all began with flax. This may seem a queer way of beginning to study about music, but that is how we began. One day last fall the boys brought some flax into the school from the school garden. They made machines and prepared the flax for spinning. When it was ready for spinning, the noise the spinning wheel made suggested Mendelssohn's "Spinning Song." We played it a number of times on the phonograph and this brought up the question of music. We began to wonder about the kinds of musical instruments, both early and late. We learned there were three principal kinds—percussion, wind, and stringed. Percussion instruments are those that make a sound when they are struck—as drums and gongs. Wind instruments make a sound when they are blown upon or into—as panpipes and harmonica. Stringed instruments make a sound caused by the vibration of the strings when they are touched—as violin and harp.

As we studied the different instruments, we made them. I said we studied, but it was all so interesting we hardly realized it was part of our work.

We will now tell how all of our studies helped in our work.

CORRELATION IN THE WORK

We children have had much fun in the making of musical instruments. This work has been tied up with all of our studies, such as social science, language, physical culture, sewing, and art work. The work began with the social science. As the stories or facts were told or read to us we gave them back in oral language, then wrote them. The best of the written work was then read to the class for criticism. This helped us in learning to select the best. The boys' physical culture teacher trained them for the Indian dance. The girls' sewing teacher helped them make a wall hanging. The design for this was taken from a carving found in a tomb in the Great Pyramid in Gizeh, Egypt. It represented a number of Egyptians playing flutes. The art supervisor gave much assistance

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GRAND HAVEN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

in the correlation of the sewing, the music and the drawing through rhythmic drawing, and in the construction work of the puppet show. From this you see how the other subjects contributed to the work.

THE BEGINNING OF OUR STUDY, OR RAIN RATTLES

This is how we began to make musical instruments. Our teacher read us the story of how Nalukee and Tsapowi, Pueblo Indians, made the first rain rattle. We thought we would make some of these rattles. Next thing the teacher knew, her table was piled with rattles and drums made from all sorts of things. Rattles were made from cans, boxes, nutshells, nails hanging from strings, bottles, paper, rubber balls, dried lemon rind, gourd, and many other things. We used rice, beans, stones and shot inside to rattle. We used cocoanut shells, glass, and aluminum baking dishes, embroidery hoops, and galvanized furnace pipe in making our drums.

Next we thought we would like to act out the story of Nalukee and Tsapowi, so we dramatized it. This called for a rain dance, but it could not be completed without music, so we wrote the words of a "Rain Song" and composed the music for the words. We now had our drama, dance, and song.[1]

The children wrote accounts also of how they made various musical instruments. The concluding piece of written work in the study was the following:

SOME LESSONS WE HAVE LEARNED

While we were studying music we found out something that surprised us. In our social science work we had found the Chinese were far behind other nations in manufacturing and ways of doing things, so we had thought of them as a heathen and uncivilized people. Now we have found they made the Chinese scale and the king, an instrument which those who have heard it say blends more perfectly with the human voice than any other instrument. They were also one of the first to make and use bells in their religious ceremonies, having used them for forty-six centuries.

There are many interesting stories about the Chinese bells, but they are not more interesting than the things we have learned about the Chinese people. They invented the compass, gunpowder, and ink and were the first to make silk. Four thousand years ago they were making bread from wheat and wine from rice. They excel in work that requires patience and art. Their silks and porcelains are famous all over the world. The Chinese are bright students and have remarkable memories. We have learned that we cannot judge people by knowing just a few things about them. We have learned to respect people for the work which they do.

LAURA M. HAMMOND,
Homer Street School,
Springfield, Mass.

QUESTION BOX

5. *Should not the "social studies" be treated as the center of content to which all of the activities of the pupils in a coöperative group should be related?*

The Coöperative Group Plan is not a plan of instruction but a plan of organization. It does not require any particular form of curriculum or method of instruction—correlation, project method, activity unit, individual instruction, "types" of lessons, formal or informal teaching, Aristotelian or Rousseaulian tradition. It does, however, make experiments and reforms easier and good teaching of any sort more possible. Better mastery of her field of learning and better facilities, together with fellowship and the give and take of planning in conference, are almost certain to result in better service from the teacher.

The term "social studies" is at present more or less confusing. Does it mean a group of separate subjects, such as geography, history, and civics? If so, should nature study, health, safety, arithmetic, and others be included? If so, why not English, industrial arts, music, and so on indefinitely? Like the term citizenship, the term social studies tends to become an

[1] The play and the song are omitted on account of lack of space.—Ed.

inclusive expression, nearly synonymous with education, and hence useless or at least unnecessary. If the other alternative is chosen and a "unified course" is meant, the situation is no better. No two of the chief exponents of such a unification agree as to what should be included or left out. Indeed, even the objectives to be reached are in doubt.

Still further, it is yet to be shown that attempting to relate all activities to one center of interest is possible or desirable. Those who try it invariably omit much of what has hitherto been taught. Just what should be omitted? In the primary grades? In the grades above? Is there not still a place for activities that do not aim at learning beyond the bounds of a particular "subject," so far at least as so-called primary learnings are concerned? "Life" has many situations calling for just this sort of learning. Why wait till these and similar issues are solved before reorganizing the school? The Coöperative Group Plan provides the means by which they can be determined more quickly and surely than is possible under any other conditions so far provided.

The question indicates a serious preoccupation with one current educational interest to the exclusion of others equally pressing. It suggests that there are those who believe that at last a universal solvent has been found. It also calls for our attempting the more uncertain and difficult task before attempting another presenting no grave difficulties. At the best it shows that the literature in which the new plan has been explained has not been carefully read.

AS REPORTED

PROGRAM OF THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS IN DETROIT

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 9:30 A.M.

President ELIZABETH HALL, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, presiding

Topic: The Fourth Yearbook, "The Evaluation of Supervision"

1. Presentation of the Yearbook
   CLIFFORD WOODY, Director, Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, University of Michigan
2. The Criteria for the Evaluation of Supervision
   PAUL T. RANKIN, Director, Bureau of Instructional Research, Detroit Public Schools
3. Conclusions Derived from Experimental Studies on the Value of Supervision
   GEORGE C. KYTE, Professor of Elementary Education and Supervision, University of Michigan
4. Present and Possible Contributions of Case Studies in the Evaluation of Supervision
   J. RALPH MCGAUGHY, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University
5. A Brief Prospectus of the Yearbook for 1932
   ELMA A. NEAL, Assistant Superintendent of Schools and Director of Elementary Education, San Antonio, Texas
6. A Brief Prospectus of the Yearbook for 1933
   RUDOLF D. LINDQUIST, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, California

Luncheon Meeting

Hotel Statler, 12:00

J. CAYCE MORRISON, First Vice-President, presiding

Informal addresses by Willard Beatty, Superintendent of Schools, Bronxville, New York, and Helen Hay Heyl, State Education Department, Albany, New York.

Tickets, $1.75. Reservations should be made in advance.

Address the Secretary, James F. Hosic, 525 West 120th Street, New York City. In Detroit, tickets may be obtained at the booth for this purpose in the Exhibit Hall.

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 25

I. The Problem of Articulation from the Standpoint of the Supervisor
   1. In what ways can adequate supervision bring about better articulation of the units of American education?
      MARGARET ALLTUCKER NORTON, Assistant Director, Division of Research, National Education Association
   2. How supervisors can help to put pupil promotion on a more scientific basis
      HELEN MACKINTOSH, Supervisor of Elementary Grades, Grand Rapids, Michigan

II. Progressive Education and the Public Schools
   1. Children Must Succeed
      ERNEST HORN, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa
   2. Remaking the School in Accord with Modern Psychology
      HAROLD O. RUGG, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University

Business Meeting

Immediately at the close of the program on Wednesday, the regular business meeting of the Department will be held. Five members of the Board of Directors are to be elected to succeed those whose terms expire. The most important item of business will be to vote upon an amendment to the constitution providing for state or district representation on the Board of Directors. The proposed amendment will be found on page 249.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The eleventh annual conference of the Progressive Education Association will be held February 26-28, 1931, in Detroit, Michigan, with headquarters at the Book-Cadillac Hotel. Among the speakers will be John Erskine, Dr. William Boyd, Glasgow, Scotland; Dr. Harold Rugg, Teachers College, New York; Dr. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., Director of Indian Education of the United States Department of the Interior; Wilford Aikin, the John Burroughs School, St. Louis; Katharine Taylor, the Shady Hill School, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Dr. Goodwin Watson, Teachers College, New York; Eugenia Eckford, the Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware; Elsie Wygant, the Francis W. Parker School, Chicago; and Morton Snyder, the Rye Country Day School, Rye, New York. Among the topics to be discussed will be "The Education of the Progressive Teacher," "College Entrance and the Secondary School," "Children's Interests versus the Teacher's Judgment," "The Next Step in International Coöperation," "Music in the Schools for a New Day." In addition there will be a symposium on the teaching of special subjects, with exhibits of school material to be used. The Conference will feature its annual banquet, various luncheons, school visiting, sightseeing, and receptions. Advance reservations and applications for membership should be made to the Progressive Education Association, 10 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

UNEMPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS

The National Education Association has formed a committee to collect a temporary emergency fund to be immediately available for cases of pressing need among teachers who are out of employment. The fund will be used in enabling local boards of education to provide work for such persons. The committee is made up as follows: Professor William C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, *Chairman*; William John Cooper, U. S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C., Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent-Emeritus, Los Angeles, California; the President and Executive Committee of the N.E.A., *ex-officio*.

Checks should be made payable to J. W. Crabtree and mailed to him in care of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. In case more money is collected than is needed for the purpose for which the fund is being established, the extra amount will be refunded pro rata to the contributors.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION

At the meeting of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction which will be held in Detroit on Wednesday, February 25, 1931, certain amendments to the constitution of the Department will be proposed. The chief purposes of the suggested changes are to encourage local organizations of supervisors, democratize the control of the national organization, and develop greater solidarity among all those persons whose chief function is the stimulation and guidance of teachers.

The proposed amendments are as follows (italicized portions):

CONSTITUTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS (AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION) OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

ARTICLE I

NAME.—The name of this organization shall be the Department of Supervisors (and Directors of Instruction) of the National Education Association of the United States.

ARTICLE II

OBJECT.—The object of the Department shall be the improvement of supervision and teaching.

ARTICLE III

MEMBERSHIP.—Section 1. There shall be two classes of members: active and honorary.

Sec. 2. Any person who is desirous of promoting the interests of the Department and sharing in the results of its work shall be eligible to membership and may become a member by paying the annual dues, provided his application for membership shall have been approved by the Executive Committee of the Department. All members of the Department must also be members of the National Education Association of the United States.

Sec. 3. Active members shall be entitled to vote, to hold office, to participate in discussion, and to receive all the publications of the Department.

Sec. 4. Honorary members shall be entitled to all the privileges of active members, with the exception of voting and holding office, but shall be exempt from the payment of dues. A person may be elected to honorary membership by vote of the Department at the annual meeting on nomination by the Executive Committee.

Sec. 5. The annual dues of active members shall be four dollars.

ARTICLE IV

OFFICERS AND DIRECTORS.—Section 1. The officers of this Department shall be president, first vice-president, second vice-president, secretary-treasurer, and executive committee.

Sec. 2. The Executive Committee shall consist of the president, the first vice-president, the second vice-president, the secretary-treasurer, and three other active members of the Department.

Sec. 3. The president and vice-presidents shall serve for a term of one year, the secretary-treasurer for three years, and the other members of the Executive Committee for three years, one to be elected each year.

Sec. 4. The Executive Committee shall have active charge of the affairs of the Department, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors.

Sec. 5. The Board of Directors shall constitute the governing body of the Department. It shall consist of fifteen members at large, whose term of office shall be three years, five to be elected each year at the annual meeting in such manner as the by-laws of the Department may determine, *together with representatives of state and district associations of supervisors and directors of instruction, as hereinafter provided.*

Sec. 6. The Board of Directors shall elect from their own number the officers of the Department, who shall serve also in like capacity as the officers of the Board. The Board shall be the custodian of the property of the Department, shall have power to make contracts, and shall make an annual financial report to the Department.

Article V

Sections.—In order to provide for the special interests of different types or classes of supervisors, the Department shall maintain sections and arrange for section meetings. Applications for sections shall be made to the Board of Directors and, if approved by the Board, shall be submitted by it to the annual meeting for confirmation. Sections may be discontinued in the same way.

Article VI

State and District Associations.—State and district associations of supervisors and directors of instruction may elect members of the Board of Directors of the Department to serve for the same length of term and with the same duties and privileges as the members elected by the Department itself, subject to the following conditions and specifications: a. The group seeking representation must be certified by the officers of the state education association as being a permanent part of that organization; b. Representation shall be on the basis of one member of the Board of Directors of the Department for each one hundred members of the group to be represented or major fraction thereof. c. In estimating such membership for the purpose of representation, only persons who are bona fide members of the National Education Association, the state education association concerned, and the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction shall be counted. d. Any state may have state-wide representation or district representation but not both, and in estimating membership for representation no person shall be counted twice. e. Representative members of the Board of Directors shall bear such credentials as the by-laws of the Department may determine.

Article VII

Meetings.—The Department shall hold two regular meetings each year, one in connection with the annual meeting of the National Education Association and the other in connection with the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence. Special meetings may be called by the Executive Committee. The annual meeting for the election of officers, presentation of reports, and transaction of any other business requiring official action by the Department or by the Board of Directors shall be the regular meeting designated for these purposes in the by-laws of the Department.

Article VIII

Publications.—The Department shall publish a journal and such supplements and reports as the Executive Committee may direct.

Article IX

Amendments.—This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting for the transaction of official business by a vote of two-thirds of the active members present, provided notice of proposed amendment has been given in the journal of the Depart-

ment at least three months previous and provided further that nothing in the proposed amendment shall conflict with the Act of Incorporation or the by-laws of the National Education Association.

Article X

By-Laws.—Details of the activities of the Department shall be regulated by the by-laws. These may be amended at any annual meeting for the transaction of official business by a majority vote of the members present, provided notice has been given three months in advance.

By-Laws

Annual Meeting.—The regular meeting, to be known as the annual meeting, for the election of officers and members of the Board of Directors and for the transaction of business shall be that held in connection with the annual meeting of the *Department of Superintendence*, provided that proposals may be made and agreed upon at the *summer* meeting, needing only to be confirmed at the annual meeting.

Elections.—Unless otherwise ordered by the Department, nominations of officers of the Department and members *at large* of the Board of Directors shall be made by a committee chosen by the Executive Committee of the Department.

Quorum.—Twenty-five active members of the Department shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business. *Nine* members of the Board of Directors shall constitute a quorum of that body.

Credentials.—The credentials of representative members of the Board of Directors shall be signed by the president and secretary of the state or district organization which they seek to represent, and shall be presented to the Executive Committee for approval.

Committees.—Standing committees of the Department may be appointed by the Executive Committee, which shall have general oversight and direction of all such committees.

Publications.—The publications of the Department shall be in charge of the Executive Committee, subject to such general policies as the Board of Directors may adopt. All publications shall be edited by the Secretary-Treasurer of the Department.

Expenditures.—The funds of the Department shall be disbursed only in accordance with annual budgets adopted by the Board of Directors. The Secretary-Treasurer shall receive and disburse the funds of the Department and make an annual accounting to the Board of Directors under the direction of the Executive Committee, which shall be responsible for proper auditing of accounts.

Membership Year.—The period of membership of each person who joins the Department and pays the annual dues shall be twelve calendar months, counting from the first day of the month in which the person is accepted as a member. Members shall be entitled to receive only those publications of the Department that appear within the year for which their annual dues are paid.

THE READER'S GUIDE

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN SCHOOL AND HOME

The Chicago Association for Child Study and Parent Education meets biennially and issues a full report of its proceedings. The report for 1926 is entitled *Intelligent Parenthood*, that for 1928, *Building Character*, and that for 1930, *The Child's Emotions*.[1] This latest report is fully as valuable as its predecessors. Some twenty-five papers and addresses are reproduced, the contents of which cover a wide range.

The main topics considered are as follows: "Basis of Emotions," "Experiments in Emotions," "The Child's Emotional Life with Reference to Social Relationships," and "Adjustments in the Emotional Life of the Child." The speakers were chiefly scientists of high standing, some of them of international reputation. The trend of the discussion was distinctly moderate, away from the extremes of Freudianism, Adlerism, and similar theories. In fact, attempts to explain and control the emotions by means of simple formulas were decried by several of those who took part in the conference. It was clearly recognized that pedagogical principles that have served us in the intellectual sphere may play us false when we enter the sphere of the emotions.

As contrasted with similar reports of educational conventions attended by teachers and other school officers, this report reflects a much wider and deeper background of scholarship and far less preoccupation with mere technique. This is partly due to the nature of the topics discussed, no doubt, but not wholly so. Educators these days often seem to be concerned primarily with techniques and many of them know very little else.

The range covered extends from the young child through the college, with many sidelights on the emotional problems of parents themselves. The volume deserves very careful reading by all who are interested in the problems growing out of the emotional life of children and youth. So much good material on this theme can not readily be found elsewhere.

Children at the Crossroads[2] is an addition to the series of studies of the work of the visiting teacher carried on by the National Committee on Visiting Teachers with the aid of the Commonwealth Fund. This study has to do with the rural districts in contrast to its predecessors, which were urban. Three counties were selected for the demonstration—Monmouth County, New Jersey, Huron County, Ohio, and Boone County, Missouri—names rich in historical associations. After three years in the first and five years in each of the others, Miss Benedict, the writer of the account, was well prepared for her task.

About half of the space is devoted to narratives of actual experience or case studies. These reveal sets of conditions in country life today doubtless quite unfamiliar to large sections even of the better educated classes in our large cities. What is of even more importance, these studies show how much might be done to ameliorate these conditions and overcome their ill effects by means of better schools and better attention to personality problems of young people. Newspapers in those states

[1] *The Child's Emotions.* Proceedings of the Mid-West Conference on Child Development. University of Chicago Press, 1930.

[2] *Children at the Crossroads.* By Agnes E. Benedict. The Commonwealth Fund, 1930.

that are now seeking to revise their systems of taxation so as to transfer to income from investments a portion of the burden now borne by real estate alone—often unproductive real estate—and so secure sufficient funds to provide good schooling for country children may well give this book serious attention.

As evidence of the possibilities for good in the extension of the visiting teacher movement to the rural districts, this record is convincing. It is gratifying to know that in certain cases the communities themselves have assumed the responsibility of supporting this service after the subvention from the Commonwealth Fund was withdrawn.

Professor Arlitt's excellent treatment of the psychology of infancy and childhood now appears in a revised editing.[3] This book is included in the "Euthenics Series" issued by the publishers and is associated with the effort now rapidly gaining momentum to bring about better home training and pre-school education through university research and scholarship.

The author declares in her preface that the ills of childhood are mainly traceable to bad habits or lack of proper habit formation, and hence she believes that the problems of child care are all at bottom psychological problems. In this she is putting first things first and will doubtless help to counteract the over-emphasis on nutrition now observed in some schools of child development. Childhood education is not primarily a matter of home economics.

The author acknowledges her debt to a considerable number of eminent authorities, like Baldwin, Gesell, and Woolley, together with Carr and Herrick. This is to say that she has sought to utilize as far as possible the best existing scientific knowledge in her field. To attempt an evaluation of the work from this point of view is beyond the scope of the present review. The book is distinctly not a series of popular talks on "newer ways with children." Instead, it is a clear and painstaking though untechnical exposition, well organized, documented, and provided with apparatus for the use of college students. Because of its narrower range, this volume is enabled to go more thoroughly into the examination of the problems of young children than Dr. Strang's recent work, with which it may in many ways be compared. The number of specific cases described adds both to the interest and to the value of the work.

MORALITY AND ECONOMICS

In the last analysis the philosophy of life and of education must appear to be identical. What we should educate for depends upon our view of what life itself should be. For these reasons such a thought-provoking book as Professor Ward's on *Our Economic Morality*[4] is of first importance.

The questions he raises are these: Can the ethics of Jesus and an essentially individualistic economic order continue to exist side by side? Can they be brought into harmony? Or must one eventually destroy or absorb the other? The writer assumes, of course, that those who profess to be followers of the Nazarene will fairly and frankly face the issue as he himself does. He is willing to raise the question as to whether the profit motive, which has so long dominated our social order, will bring us out where we should like, as a nation, to be. Does it bring those permanent satisfactions of life which, after all, are the only satisfactions really worth the having? Since this was not the motive that actuated the Master himself, nor what

[3] *Psychology of Infancy and Early Childhood.* By Ada H. Arlitt. McGraw-Hill Co., 1930.
[4] *Our Economic Morality.* By Harry F. Ward. Macmillan Co., 1929.

He put forward in His teachings, does our elevating it to the place of chief importance mean that we must in all conscience cease to profess that which in fact we do not believe?

The author is not here advocating some specific political or social reform—the changing of the mere externals of our social structure. He would stimulate us to think honestly and searchingly concerning our foundations. In view of recent revelations of the shocking disregard of even the most elementary principles of decency and regard for the rights of others, not only in Chicago but throughout the country, this book is even more timely than when it was published a few months ago. It should be read and pondered in connection with such recent articles as Adams's in the *Forum* for December and Watson's in *School Administration and Supervision* for October. If any still doubt, they may well turn to Sullivan's *Chicago Surrenders*, where they will learn what our well-nigh universal greed for money is really doing to us.

SIGNIFICANT ARTICLES

COLLEGE STUDENTS

The leading article in the November issue of *Progressive Education* is by Professor Goodwin Watson of Teachers College, Columbia University. He writes of the college course from the point of view expressed in the question, "What should college students learn?" He prefaces his answer with a brief analysis of the principles of learning and then proceeds to a proposed curriculum. This is to be organized around some seven major interests, namely, health, participation in home life, practical economics, the use of leisure, vocation, citizenship, and the philosophy of life. This is an attempt to apply to the college course the sort of analysis that was made by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in its report, "The Cardinal Principles of Education."

TAKING STOCK OF SUPERSTITIONS

A survey of the literature dealing with unfounded beliefs among high school seniors has been made by Gerhard E. Lundeen and Otis W. Caldwell of the Institute of School Experimentation, Teachers College, Columbia University, and is reported in the *Journal of Educational Research* for November. The main purpose of the investigators was to find out to what extent high school seniors of various localities have heard of, believe in, and are influenced by certain types of unfounded beliefs. A questionnaire containing 200 ideas was organized so as to give the students an opportunity to respond. Different types of high schools were selected in various parts of the country. Attention was paid also to sex differences, and an attempt was made to distinguish among the types of ideas to which the students responded. Among the conclusions reached are that high school education and experience tend to reduce the amount of superstition found among students, although a great deal of unfounded belief remains. High school students appear to believe in and be influenced by approximately one-fifth of the ideas that they have "heard." Misconceptions relating to the weather and other natural phenomena seem to be more common than other types. Thirty ideas out of the two hundred suggested were found to be most prevalent and most influential.

HISTORY OF REGENTS' EXAMINATIONS

The Regents' examinations of the state of New York are notable—some of their critics would say "notorious." Many educators, therefore, will be interested in a sketch of the development of the system of education in the state of New York and

the examinations which have for so long played a prominent part in its program, contributed to the *Bulletin of High Points* for October by Joseph B. Orleans, of George Washington High School, New York City.

The foundation of the system was laid by Governor Clinton in 1784, when he caused a bill to be introduced into the legislature, entitled "An Act for Establishing a University Within This State." This legislation called for a Board of Regents, to whom large powers were entrusted. These powers were further enlarged in succeeding periods, notably when the legislature in 1805 established a permanent school fund.

The system of examinations was organized by Superintendent Draper in 1888. This was chiefly for the purpose of standardizing the high schools. Until 1906 the examinations were prepared in the Regents' office under the direction of the Secretary of the Board. Since that time there has been a State Examinations Board, and papers have been prepared pretty largely by teachers and others directly connected with the schools.

The account concludes with excerpts from the reports of 1924 and 1927, which indicate that the use of the examinations in the schools is extending and that they are popular with the academic principals of the state.

AN APPRECIATION OF DOCTOR DAVIDSON

The opening article in *The Platoon School* for September-October-November is a tribute to the late Superintendent William M. Davidson of Pittsburgh, by Associate Superintendent William F. Kennedy. The writer describes with vividness and sympathy the occasion of Dr. Davidson's death and funeral. He then passes on to a history of his educational services. These were notable, particularly in Topeka, Omaha, Washington, and Pittsburgh. In addition to the words of Mr. Kennedy himself there appear in the article appreciations from William John Cooper, Thomas E. Finegan, John W. Withers, Herbert S. Weet, Albert E. Winship, John A. H. Keith, Marcus Aaron, Ben G. Graham, and M. Elizabeth Wolf.

SPECIFIC DIFFICULTIES IN THE SCHOOL SUBJECTS

The Elementary School Journal for November is devoted almost entirely to articles dealing with specific difficulties and abilities in the conventional school subjects. Among the studies presented are: "The Effect of the Method of Instruction on Transfer of Training in Arithmetic," by J. R. Overman of Bowling Green, Ohio; "Reading Difficulties in Studying Content Subjects," by James M. McCallister of Aberdeen, South Dakota; and "Difficulties in Solving Problems in Arithmetic," by Lenore John of the Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago. Mr. McCallister focused his attention particularly upon such subjects as history, geography, mathematics, and science. His purpose was to discover how far pupils in these subjects are handicapped by lack of reading ability. The procedure consisted in part in visiting the classes and making descriptive notes. In addition to this, examination was made of the written reports of students, which included accounts of their study procedures. Fifty specific reading difficulties were discovered, which were classified under such heads as: difficulties growing out of the method of attack; difficulties caused by inability to recognize relations; difficulties arising from lack of knowledge of subject matter; difficulties caused by deficiencies in vocabulary and by inaccuracies; and difficulties arising from lack of clearness in directions given to pupils. The author concludes that the study indicates

certain reading skills which should be developed in the junior high school. Guidance in reading should be recognized as a function of every instructor. In order that this may be effective, the instructor must be clearly cognizant of the reading activities required by his course.

THE NEW BOOKS

Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, 1930: No. 409, *Radio and Electric Power Supply Equipment for Schools*, by Edward C. Blom; pp. 188; $2.00. No. 412, *Trends in Educational Occupations*, by Marjorie Rankin; pp. 83; $1.50. No. 415, *Orienting the Student in College*, by Jay C. Knode; pp. 140; $1.50. No. 418, *Psychology and the Preparation of the Teacher for the Elementary School*, by Clara L. Robinson; pp. 121; $1.50. No. 425, *Some Methods of Teaching in Six Representative State Teachers Colleges of the United States*, by Paul G. Chandler; pp. 149; $1.50. No. 428, *Economy in Public School Fire Insurance*, by Harvey A. Smith; pp. 113; $1.50. No. 430, *Concerning Our Girls and What They Tell Us*, by Eugenie A. Leonard; pp. 192; $2.00. No. 432, *Alumni Stimulation by the American College President*, by Webster S. Stover; pp. 127; $1.50. No. 433, *Tests of the Interpretative Reading of Poetry for Teachers of English*, by Helene W. Hartley; pp. 47; $1.50. No. 434, *The Work of Placement Offices in Teacher Training Institutions*, by Whit Brogan; pp. 97; $1.50. No. 435, *Functional Grammar*, by Harry N. Rivlin; pp. 93; $1.50. No. 436, *The Effectiveness of Modern Spelling Instruction*, by Robert S. Thompson; pp. 81; $1.50. No. 437, *Some Factors in the Undergraduate Careers of Young College Students*, by Howard A. Gray; pp. 66; $1.50. No. 438, *Influence of Regularly Interpolated Time Intervals upon Subsequent Learning*, by Irving Lorge; pp. 57; $1.50. No. 439, *Generalization of Bright and Dull Children*, by Herbert A. Carroll; pp. 54; $1.50. No. 441, *A Comparative Study of Detergents*, by Ellen B. McGowan; pp. 125; $1.50. No. 445, *Natural Science Education in the German Elementary Schools*, by Lois Meier; pp. 158; $1.75.

The Child's Emotions. Proceedings of the Mid-West Conference on Character Development, February, 1930. University of Chicago Press, 1930. Pp. 406. $2.50.

Pioneer Trails. By William D. Lewis and Albert L. Rowland. The New Silent Readers, Book VII. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1930. Pp. 507.

Thomas Jefferson and Education in a Republic. Edited by Charles F. Arrowood. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1930. Pp. 184. $1.75.

Health and Physical Education. By Jesse F. Williams and Clifford L. Brownell. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1930. Pp. 117.

Industrial Arts for Public School Administrators. By Frederick G. Bonser. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1930. Pp. 95.

A Child's Second Number Book. By Julie E. Badanes and Saul Badanes. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. Part One, pp. 117; $.68. Part Two, pp. 130; $.68.

Aims and Methods in Teaching Religion. By John K. Sharp. New York: Benziger Bros., 1929. Pp. 407. $2.75.

American Cardinal Readers. For Catholic Parochial Schools. By Edith M. McLaughlin and T. Adrian Curtis. New York: Benziger Bros., 1929. Primer, pp. 98; $.72. Book One, pp. 177; $.76. Book Two, pp. 217; $.91. Book Three, pp. 249; $.96. Book Four, pp. 282; $.98. Book Seven, pp. 452; $.96. Book Eight, pp. 556; $.96. Teacher's Manual for Book One, pp. 351; $.50. Notes and

Suggestions for Books Seven and Eight, pp. 68; $.15.

The Music Hour, Fifth Book. By Osbourne McConathy, W. Otto Miessner, Edward B. Birge, and Mabel E. Bray. Newark: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1930. Pp. 172. $.88.

The New Day Arithmetics. By Fletcher Durell, Harry O. Gillet, and Thomas J. Durell. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1930. Elementary Book, pp. 450; $.80. Intermediate Book, pp. 452; $.84.

Europe, The Mother of America. Fifth Grade History. By Charles F. Horne and Olive Bucks. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1930. Pp. 294. Illus. $1.00.

Young America. Sixth Grade History. By Charles F. Horne and Olive Bucks. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1930. Pp. 328. Illus. $1.00.

Psychology of Infancy and Early Childhood. By Ada H. Arlitt. Second edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1930. Pp. 382.

The Art of Rapid Reading. By Walter B. Pitkin. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1929. Pp. 233. $2.50.

IN PAPER COVERS

A Study of Style in English Composition. By Helen F. Daringer. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1930. Pp. 56.

The Type of High School Curriculum Which Gives the Best Preparation for College. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 1, 1929. Pp. 106.

Harvard Bulletins in Education: No. 15, *Secondary Education in Germany, France, England and Denmark.* By Stephen P. Cabot. Pp. 110. No. 16, *Curriculum Problems in Industrial Education.* By Fred C. Smith. Pp. 145. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1930. Each, $1.00.

University of Illinois Bulletins, Vol. XXVII: No. 2. *Attitudes as Factors of Scholastic Success.* By M. E. Herriott. Pp. 72. No. 45, *Locating Educational Information in Published Sources.* By Walter S. Monroe, Thomas T. Hamilton, Jr., and V. T. Smith. Pp. 142. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, 1929-1930. Each, $.50.

500 Books for the Senior High School Library. Compiled by Meta Schmidt. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. 64. $.75.

Age Grade Survey. Philadelphia: Board of Public Education, Division of Educational Research, Bulletin No. 146, February, 1930. Pp. 45.

Studies in Collegiate Education. By A. Monroe Stowe. Lynchburg, Va.: Bulletin of Lynchburg College, Vol. IV, No. 3, June, 1930.

A New Approach to Modern European History—Students' Guide Sheets. By E. T. Smith. University of Chicago Press, 1930. Pp. 120. $.80.

An Analysis of Spelling Errors. By James E. Mendenhall. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1930. Pp. 65.

Report of the Commission to Survey Public Education, 1928. Trenton, N. J.: State Department of Education. Pp. 204.

Progressive Lessons in Spelling. Detroit: Board of Education, 1929. Pp. 111.

Detroit Testing Manual. Detroit: Board of Education, 1930. Pp. 168.

An Analysis of the Duties of County School Superintendents and Superintendents of Schools in Certain Cities in Indiana. By Henry L. Smith and Leo M. Chamberlain. Bloomington, Ind.: Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. VI, No. 2, November, 1929. Pp. 94.